

The Nation

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THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 23, 1886.

PRICE 10 CENTS.

Schools.

Alphabetized, first, by States; second, by Towns.

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FOUNDED 1865.

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Schools.

Continued from page 1.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 23, 1886.

The Week.

THE complete futility of the surplus resolution, which excited so much bitterness in Congress, is disclosed by the rapidity with which, in the absence of any law on the subject, the outstanding national bonds are being called in. The opponents of the surplus resolution said that if the public revenues should warrant large disbursements for the redemption of the public debt, large disbursements would be made without any compulsory statute. If the receipts of revenue should be small, the law would embarrass the Treasury, and might even lead to the borrowing of money with one hand while paying it out with the other. Such a thing as the hoarding of money in the Treasury merely for the pleasure of sitting on it, is unheard of and impossible. No Secretary who would do such a thing could hold his place a month. The revenues have mounted up to high figures since the adjournment of Congress, coincidently with the improvement in general business, and the bond calls have been issued with corresponding frequency, exceeding in amount the requirements of the surplus resolution even as passed by the House and before it was toned down by the Senate.

But an unexpected difficulty has been met by the Department in its endeavors to get the called bonds in for redemption. About 60 per cent. of those called are held by national banks as security for their circulating notes. These are in the custody of the Treasurer of the United States, in trust for the specific purpose of redeeming the notes. The banks say that it is no concern of theirs to gather up their notes and send them to Washington in order to take up the bonds and hand them over for redemption and cancellation. Nor is there any law requiring them to buy new bonds to take the place of old ones. A partial deadlock is the result, and the Secretary has sought to get rid of his surplus funds by offering to redeem other bonds not called. The temporary tightness in the money market has helped him to do this, since some investors, finding that they can get 6 per cent. on undoubted security, are glad to surrender a security which yields only 3 per cent. and is liable to be called in at any moment. But this relief is not sufficient to carry off the surplus left in the Treasury by the non-action of the banks. There is a *casus omissus* in the national banking law which Congress will have to meet early in the next session, but which will not be so easy to meet as might be supposed at first glance. The problem is how to get the called bonds held for bank circulation out of the hands of the Treasurer as trustee into the hands of the Treasurer as a redeeming and cancelling officer. If the banks are willing to forego for the time being the interest on the bonds, which of course stops at the expiration of the call, the limits of compulsory legislation are already reached. The circulat-

ing notes do not belong to the banks. They are in the pockets of the people. A law might be passed directing the Secretary of the Treasury to take up and cancel these bonds, and deposit in place of them the money he would have paid over to the holders if they had responded to the call; but this operation would not get the money out of the Treasury—that is, it would not accomplish the end sought to be reached through the bond call. The problem is something of a Chinese puzzle. It contains the germs of a good deal of mischief, especially if the Knights of Labor attempt the solution of it as they attacked the problem of the surplus with their machine-made petition a few weeks ago.

The official figures from the Maine election convict Mr. Chairman Manley of several flagrant Blaineisms. He telegraphed to the country on Friday night last that "official returns from every city, town, and plantation in the State give Bodwell 14,000 majority over Edwards." The official returns which have since come to hand tell a different story. Instead of a Republican majority of 14,000, they show a majority of only 8,978, and a plurality of only 12,850. In 1884 the Republican plurality on Governor in September was nearly 20,000, and the Republican majority over all exceeded 15,000. In 1882 the Republican plurality was 8,872, and the majority over all 6,881. Mr. Manley also said in his bulletin that "our victory, taking it all in all, is the greatest Republican triumph ever achieved in Maine." He gave no figures as a basis for this claim, and we can now understand why he did not. The total Republican vote this year is less than 69,000, against nearly 79,000 in September, 1884, and nearly 73,000 in 1882. There is a Republican loss of 10,000 votes since 1884, and of 4,000 on the last "off year" vote in 1882. The Democratic total this year is less than 56,000, against 59,000 in 1884, and nearly 64,000 in 1882, showing the Democratic loss to be 3,000 since 1884, and 8,000 since 1882. The total vote of all parties this year is, in round numbers, 129,000, against 142,000 in 1884, and 137,000 in 1882.

Senator Edmunds must have suffered greatly while he was thinking over what he should say to the Vermont farmers, and it is not exactly surprising that he should have settled down upon the tariff, as the one thing which now connects the farmer as a producer of wealth with political life. We must say that the Senator was not at his best in this branch of dialectics, for all that he did say about the tariff ran to the conclusion that the farmer wants a home market for his products—the danger of anybody else supplanting him in the home market being so great—and that the way to attain agricultural prosperity is to curtail foreign trade. Judiciously of course: we should have some foreign trade, but not too much—we should have just enough. This being a political question, Congress will decide when we have had enough, if the farmers will be judicious on their part in electing the right men. In any-

thing except foreign trade Mr. Edmunds favors the amplest freedom. The wisest thing in his speech is the following paragraph on the rights of labor:

"The liberty of the laboring man is not only the liberty to 'strike,' as the phrase is, but it is the equal liberty not to strike if he does not wish to, and the liberty to work on in peace and safety if he thinks it for his interest so to do, while others may choose, as they have the perfect right to do, not to work upon the terms proposed. He will learn that violence against the administration of law, or unlawful coercion of any kind exerted toward other workingmen or towards employers, are crimes of the gravest character against all labor and the welfare of laboring men, upon whom the consequences of such things always finally fall more heavily than on any other classes of society."

Gov. Hill has earned the distinction of talking more and saying less on the Labor Question than any other public man of the present day. Neither Mr. Powderly, nor Prof. Ely, nor any of our clerical labor reformers has put so many attractive commonplaces in small compass as the Governor strung together in his speech at Dunkirk on Saturday afternoon. He first laid down the general rule that it is the duty of the State to encourage and aid every man in his honest efforts to gain a living for himself and his family. This did not mean that it was the duty of the Government to furnish work for everybody, but it did mean that the Government should furnish "every reasonable facility" to all who are willing to work. The contrary of this proposition, that the Government should interpose every possible obstacle in order to prevent men from earning an honest living, may be held by some, but not by the Governor of our noble State. That something akin to this doctrine has gained the ascendancy in our public councils, may be inferred from the fact that although we have a country abounding in natural resources sufficient to make everybody prosperous and contented, many are eking out a miserable existence, although willing to work. This is taken to be proof that "there is something wrong in our system of government or in the administration of public affairs." What this is, the Governor forbore to mention, although his hearers must have been eager, after listening to so pathetic a discourse, to cast their votes so as to right those public wrongs which prevent men from earning an honest living.

For an apt illustration of the sad condition of the laboring classes, the Governor took up the case of the street-car employees, who have to work twelve hours a day, and sometimes fourteen, and who never see their own children awake except on Sunday, and perhaps only one Sunday out of three or four. After reflecting upon this in moving terms, the Governor says: "It would seem as though eight hours of hard labor, four in the forenoon and four in the afternoon, followed up the year round, ought to be sufficient to enable any workingman to live, and are all that he ought ordinarily to be required to perform." But if the case is different from what it

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 23, 1886.

The Week.

THE complete futility of the surplus resolution, which excited so much bitterness in Congress, is disclosed by the rapidity with which, in the absence of any law on the subject, the outstanding national bonds are being called in. The opponents of the surplus resolution said that if the public revenues should warrant large disbursements for the redemption of the public debt, large disbursements would be made without any compulsory statute. If the receipts of revenue should be small, the law would embarrass the Treasury, and might even lead to the borrowing of money with one hand while paying it out with the other. Such a thing as the hoarding of money in the Treasury merely for the pleasure of sitting on it, is unheard of and impossible. No Secretary who would do such a thing could hold his place a month. The revenues have mounted up to high figures since the adjournment of Congress, coincidently with the improvement in general business, and the bond calls have been issued with corresponding frequency, exceeding in amount the requirements of the surplus resolution even as passed by the House and before it was toned down by the Senate.

But an unexpected difficulty has been met by the Department in its endeavors to get the called bonds in for redemption. About 60 per cent. of those called are held by national banks as security for their circulating notes. These are in the custody of the Treasurer of the United States, in trust for the specific purpose of redeeming the notes. The banks say that it is no concern of theirs to gather up their notes and send them to Washington in order to take up the bonds and hand them over for redemption and cancellation. Nor is there any law requiring them to buy new bonds to take the place of old ones. A partial deadlock is the result, and the Secretary has sought to get rid of his surplus funds by offering to redeem other bonds not called. The temporary tightness in the money market has helped him to do this, since some investors, finding that they can get 6 per cent. on undoubted security, are glad to surrender a security which yields only 3 per cent. and is liable to be called in at any moment. But this relief is not sufficient to carry off the surplus left in the Treasury by the non-action of the banks. There is a *cavus omisus* in the national banking law which Congress will have to meet early in the next session, but which will not be so easy to meet as might be supposed at first glance. The problem is how to get the called bonds held for bank circulation out of the hands of the Treasurer as trustee into the hands of the Treasurer as a redeeming and cancelling officer. If the banks are willing to forego for the time being the interest on the bonds, which of course stops at the expiration of the call, the limits of compulsory legislation are already reached. The circulat-

ing notes do not belong to the banks. They are in the pockets of the people. A law might be passed directing the Secretary of the Treasury to take up and cancel these bonds, and deposit in place of them the money he would have paid over to the holders if they had responded to the call; but this operation would not get the money out of the Treasury—that is, it would not accomplish the end sought to be reached through the bond call. The problem is something of a Chinese puzzle. It contains the germs of a good deal of mischief, especially if the Knights of Labor attempt the solution of it as they attacked the problem of the surplus with their machine-made petitions a few weeks ago.

The official figures from the Maine election convict Mr. Chairman Manley of several flagrant Blaineisms. He telegraphed to the country on Friday night last that "official returns from every city, town, and plantation in the State give Bodwell 14,000 majority over Edwards." The official returns which have since come to hand tell a different story. Instead of a Republican majority of 14,000, they show a majority of only 8,978, and a plurality of only 12,850. In 1884 the Republican plurality on Governor in September was nearly 20,000, and the Republican majority over all exceeded 15,000. In 1882 the Republican plurality was 8,872, and the majority over all 6,881. Mr. Manley also said in his bulletin that "our victory, taking it all in all, is the greatest Republican triumph ever achieved in Maine." He gave no figures as a basis for this claim, and we can now understand why he did not. The total Republican vote this year is less than 69,000, against nearly 79,000 in September, 1884, and nearly 73,000 in 1882. There is a Republican loss of 10,000 votes since 1884, and of 4,000 on the last "off year" vote in 1882. The Democratic total this year is less than 56,000, against 59,000 in 1884, and nearly 64,000 in 1882, showing the Democratic loss to be 3,000 since 1884, and 8,000 since 1882. The total vote of all parties this year is, in round numbers, 129,000, against 142,000 in 1884, and 137,000 in 1882.

Senator Edmunds must have suffered greatly while he was thinking over what he should say to the Vermont farmers, and it is not exactly surprising that he should have settled down upon the tariff, as the one thing which now connects the farmer as a producer of wealth with political life. We must say that the Senator was not at his best in this branch of dialectics, for all that he did say about the tariff ran to the conclusion that the farmer wants a home market for his products—the danger of anybody else supplanting him in the home market being so great—and that the way to attain agricultural prosperity is to curtail foreign trade. Judiciously of course: we should have some foreign trade, but not too much—we should have just enough. This being a political question, Congress will decide when we have had enough, if the farmers will be judicious on their part in electing the right men. In any-

thing except foreign trade Mr. Edmunds favors the amplest freedom. The wisest thing in his speech is the following paragraph on the rights of labor:

"The liberty of the laboring man is not only the liberty to 'strike,' as the phrase is, but it is the equal liberty not to strike if he does not wish to, and the liberty to work on in peace and safety if he thinks it for his interest so to do, while others may choose, as they have the perfect right to do, not to work upon the terms proposed. He will learn that violence against the administration of law, or unlawful coercion of any kind exerted toward other workingmen or towards employers, are crimes of the gravest character against all labor and the welfare of laboring men, upon whom the consequences of such things always finally fall more heavily than on any other classes of society."

Gov. Hill has earned the distinction of talking more and saying less on the Labor Question than any other public man of the present day. Neither Mr. Powderly, nor Prof. Ely, nor any of our clerical labor reformers has put so many attractive commonplaces in small compass as the Governor strung together in his speech at Dunkirk on Saturday afternoon. He first laid down the general rule that it is the duty of the State to encourage and aid every man in his honest efforts to gain a living for himself and his family. This did not mean that it was the duty of the Government to furnish work for everybody, but it did mean that the Government should furnish "every reasonable facility" to all who are willing to work. The contrary of this proposition, that the Government should interpose every possible obstacle in order to prevent men from earning an honest living, may be held by some, but not by the Governor of our noble State. That something akin to this doctrine has gained the ascendancy in our public councils, may be inferred from the fact that although we have a country abounding in natural resources sufficient to make everybody prosperous and contented, many are eking out a miserable existence, although willing to work. This is taken to be proof that "there is something wrong in our system of government or in the administration of public affairs." What this is, the Governor forbore to mention, although his hearers must have been eager, after listening to so pathetic a discourse, to cast their votes so as to right those public wrongs which prevent men from earning an honest living.

For an apt illustration of the sad condition of the laboring classes, the Governor took up the case of the street-car employees, who have to work twelve hours a day, and sometimes fourteen, and who never see their own children awake except on Sunday, and perhaps only one Sunday out of three or four. After reflecting upon this in moving terms, the Governor says: "It would seem as though eight hours of hard labor, four in the forenoon and four in the afternoon, followed up the year round, ought to be sufficient to enable any workingman to live, and are all that he ought ordinarily to be required to perform." But if the case is different from what it

"seems"—that is, if eight hours' labor will not suffice to enable a man to live as he ought to—the Governor can think of no remedy except to make Saturday a legal holiday. In other words, if you cannot earn enough money by working six days in the week, try the experiment of working five under a sanction of the Legislature. The wages earned or the goods produced by working on Saturday are to be made good, under the new holiday system, "by insisting that they [the laborers] shall be paid sufficient wages for their work to enable them to live comfortably." The Governor dismissed his audience with something like a benediction in these words, than which we have seldom seen anything finer:

"An abundance of work—work at reasonable wages and reasonable hours—followed by a holiday for all the people and then a day for religious worship, to be conscientiously observed, would seem to go far towards solving the labor problem and restoring the friendly relations which ought to exist between capital and labor."

The "declaration of principles" of the United Labor party at St. Louis declares that "its aim is to secure for laborers the full enjoyment of the wealth they create, and to make industrial and moral worth, not wealth, the true standard of individual and national greatness." These are excellent designs, but the latter is also that of the Christian Church, of the Free Masons, and of all the religious and philanthropic societies in the world. Not only the Buddhists but even the Mohammedans think highly of "industrial and moral worth." It is the means proposed by the United Labor party of attaining these ends which strike us as odd, for they consist entirely in Congressional legislation of a very complicated character, which really seems to be unnecessary. We cannot help thinking that, if the work can be done by legislation at all, a short amendment to the United States Constitution would answer the purpose, providing simply that "on and after the — day of —, 188—, industrial and moral worth shall be deemed and considered the *only* true standard of individual and national greatness. Congress shall enforce this provision by appropriate legislation." The word "only," which we italicized, would render all mention of "wealth" unnecessary. On the adoption of this amendment a short act, making the use of any standard of greatness except industrial or moral worth, a misdemeanor, punishable with fine and imprisonment, would soon settle the whole business.

The prosecution of claims before the departments in Washington, which, like many other evils that now afflict us, grew out of the late war, has lately assumed such vast proportions as to deserve serious attention. Washington contains a horde of "claim agents" who infest the departments, hovering over clerks at their desks, arguing before comptrollers, besieging auditors, and even consuming the little time spared to the secretaries by the office-seekers. These men present not simply claims which from their nature need the skilful preparation and argument of attorneys, but they press to a final settlement the accounts of officers of the Government, which require nothing but an ordinary statement, vouched for by receipts or

affidavits, to insure their passage. In order to secure prompt settlement of their accounts, marshals, clerks, and other officers of the United States all over the country are solicited to employ these "claim agents," who personally supervise their adjustment, spurring an auditor's clerk here, hastening a comptroller's clerk there, praying that the secretary's clerk will make the case "special," and rushing with the messenger, who has charge of it in its last stage, to the Register, and thence to the Treasurer for the draft. This practice leads the public to believe that no little "greasing" of clerks is attempted, and sometimes successfully attempted. It delays the adjustment of the accounts of all those officers who have no claim agents employed, though their accounts have been properly and promptly rendered, and though they can ill afford to wait for their money. Add the disgraceful wranglings of these attorneys in cases where two or more pretend to have been retained (as in the awards of the Court of Commissioners of Alabama Claims, which have lately attracted so much attention), and the complaints of clients from whom exorbitant fees are exacted before drafts in their favor will be surrendered, in defiance of the plain terms of an existing agreement, and it will be admitted that the time has come either for some very strict regulations to be applied to "claim agents," or the driving of them altogether from the departments.

Mr. Chauncey M. Depew, who returned from Europe on Sunday, says of his observations abroad :

"An odd feature of Continental journalism, or so it seemed to me, is the manner in which American news is treated. The political and serious occurrences in this country are never noticed at all. The only American item I saw was a very full account of how President Cleveland caught a trout in the Adirondacks, and how Mrs. Cleveland stood on the hotel veranda and smiled when he brought it up. The fight on the floor of the House of Representatives between Congressmen Laird and Cobb was very fully treated in the Russian papers, so a friend of mine from St. Petersburg told me. He said that was the only American item printed in the St. Petersburg papers for three months. I noticed the European papers all gave that affair in detail, generally adding something like this: 'This affair clearly shows the trend of republican institutions.'"

Why should not foreign editors get that idea? They judge of American affairs from what they see in American newspapers, and these things which Mr. Depew mentions were all given the most prominent positions in our great morning journals. When a foreign editor takes up one of these great American newspapers he finds the first page given up almost entirely to scandal, crime, and tittle-tattle, while "all the political and serious occurrences" of the day are hidden away in small type on the inside pages. He naturally concludes that the latter are of secondary importance in the minds of Americans readers, and that the "trend of republican institutions" is correctly shown by the first page.

The *Herald* has made a rigid examination of its "exiles," the two nieces of the late Mr. Tilden, to see if it could not obtain from them some proof, however small, of their "expulsion" from their home at Greystone; but all the reporter could get was an admission that they were leaving a week or two sooner than they had expected. One of the ladies

said with much simplicity, not being apparently a reader of the *Herald*, "that she did not know how the impression had gone abroad that they were driven out of Greystone." We can explain the matter in a very few words. There is no mystery about it. The "impression" was sent abroad simply to "make copy" and "sell the paper." Possibly it is unpleasant for these ladies to have it abroad, and it is apparently wholly false. But they must remember that a false impression brings as much in the market as a true one, and that nobody will be out of pocket by their feeling hurt. An attempt to get the ladies to say they were dissatisfied with their uncle's will, in lieu of their being dissatisfied at being "exiled," also ended in failure, though, journalistically considered, it deserved success. Our contemporary's reporters have since been roving about in search of a lawyer who will say that it is "a great shame," and that the ladies ought to be very much aggrieved. Such is "journalism"!

Neal Dow is usually an accurate man, but he fell into a curious error in his letter to the *Tribune* on Tuesday in speaking of "a lack of candor not often seen in the *Tribune*." The fact is that there has not been any candor seen in the *Tribune* for many years. It has been, as the technical phrase is, "ruled out of the paper," doubtless for the simple and we think sufficient reason, that a party organ cannot be candid consistently with its duty to its employers. Its duty is to conceal, magnify, deny, and pervert; and to show candor and yet draw its pay would be a piece of dishonesty of which no respectable journal would be guilty.

The interest which is being manifested in the question of the next Mayoralty is most encouraging. It shows that the people are realizing what an important influence the election this fall will have upon the welfare of the city. Thanks to the intelligent and fearless exertions of Mayor Grace, the public plunderers are more completely routed than they have been in a long time. The aqueduct ring, which was the greatest scheme for robbing the city that has been planned for many years, is overthrown. The Excise Commission has been wrested from the control of the liquor interest. The Department of Public Works is in the hands of an honest and able man. All these reforms can be maintained, and others scarcely less valuable can be secured, by the election of a Mayor who will carry forward Mr. Grace's work; but if he be succeeded by an incompetent, or weak, or dishonest man, there is no telling how soon it would be before the thieves would regain possession.

It seems that a good many people have visited Niagara Falls this season under the wrong impression that they would be at no expense except their car fare. The freedom of the falls, which this State purchased at an expense of a million and a quarter of dollars, has evidently been understood by many to include the freedom of every accommodation, convenience, and amusement about the falls, hardly excepting board and lodging at the hotels. Com-

plaint is made that hackmen are as numerous as ever, and as anxious as ever to crowd as much business as possible into each day of their lives. If those who go to the falls thinking that everything will be free to them when they get there, will stop a moment to consider, they will have no difficulty in discovering their mistake. The State, by its purchases, cut only one item from the expense of visiting and viewing Niagara Falls. That was, the provoking tolls for admission to the falls. A penny-grabbing policy on the part of the owners of the real estate along the American border had shut out the public from every eligible point from which to view the great cataract. All the State has done for the public has been to remove the barriers to free access to the sight-seeing points. It is possessed of a strip of land along the river-front past the American fall wide enough to afford ample room for the visiting public from the importunities of hack drivers and the impertinence of other sorts of solicitors. If the Commissioners for the State use properly the power they possess, no visitor ought to have reason for complaint about being annoyed at the State ground. Away from the dividing line between the State ground and private property, the visitor is left to his own tact and common sense. If he is overcharged for service or swindled in his bargains, he cannot blame the State or its management of the State reservation. Free Niagara never meant, nor will it ever mean, free hacks, free hotels, and free "Indian curiosities."

At the trial of a minister before an ecclesiastical court in Brooklyn on Monday, one of the parties resented the application of the term "woman" to one of the witnesses as in some sense disrespectful. He was promptly met by citations from the Bible, showing that it was there used as a perfectly inoffensive name. But it was not necessary to go nearly so far back as that for a defence of the term. The truth is, that the word "lady," except when distinctly used as a term of classification—that is, to distinguish a particular woman—has now become in the best circles, both in this country and England, an appellation with a little burlesque in it, owing to its general adoption by women in humble positions in life. The cooks, laundresses, scrubbing women, especially among the colored people, have all adopted it as a generic term describing a person of the female sex, without reference to her manners or position. In other words, they use it instead of "woman," and consequently, to those who remember its original signification, it is a little ludicrous, because it used invariably to connote refinement of person and manners. "Woman" has, therefore, come once more into vogue as the ordinary designation of the women who used to be called "ladies," without, however, driving "lady" out of use as a term of classification. In this the English-speaking usage has simply been assimilated to that of the French, who have always kept "femme" as a perfectly proper and perfectly respectful term. In fact, great particularity in speaking of every man and woman of one's acquaintance as a "gentleman" and a "lady," has now become almost a mark of rusticity,

and, in grave cases, of what is called "caddishness."

The *Evening Post* publishes the sad story that the English lawyers who defended Cunningham and Burton, the dynamiters in London, never received a cent for their services. Mr. Stephen J. Meany now further confirms and elucidates the tale. He says he helped the prisoners in their defence, and got counsel for them, but all the money he was able to raise in this country for expenses was ten pounds sterling, and this was contributed by three men. He thinks this an awful and shameful fact, but most people will consider it very gratifying. There never was any doubt about Cunningham and Burton's guilt. They went to England on an infernal errand, and got their deserts, and perhaps nothing will do so much to discourage similar attempts as Mr. Meany's revelation of the small amount of substantial sympathy with which they are regarded in this country. Mr. Meany has the usual story to tell of "packed juries," partial judges, and "drilled witnesses," owing to the desire of accursed England to secure a conviction. The truth is, the villains have a morbid dislike to being blown up and having their buildings wrecked, and are perfectly unscrupulous in protecting themselves against the poor fellows who do it. The more widely known this is, however, the better.

It is becoming more and more apparent that Bulgaria must be Russian or not be at all. This the Bulgarians have been made to understand and keenly to feel. One may read, in such Russian journals as the *Novoye Vremya* and Katkov's *Viedomosti*, the outpourings of revengeful exultation at St. Petersburg and Moscow on the announcement of Alexander's first dethronement. He was derided as a cowardly German intruder, who had stolen into the Slavic fold in order to betray it, and had been disgracefully kicked out as soon as recognized in his true colors. The Bulgarians knew who were their deliverers and natural guides and protectors, and would not allow the pure Slavic escutcheon of their young State to be dishonored by non-Slavic interference. This Panslavist illusion has been rudely disturbed by subsequent events. The work of the Sofia conspiracy was speedily undone by the spontaneous action of all classes of the Bulgarian people, military and civil. The Russian party, which, in the eyes of the Russian journalists, was identical with the bulk of the nation, appeared too weak even to attempt resistance to the general rising in favor of the Prince. And when he meekly laid down his crown at the feet of the Czar and left the country, no reaction, in a pro-Russian sense, showed itself in any quarter. Regency, Sobranye, and people have remained stanchly faithful to the cause of the Prince, who, by leading the first military struggle of the emancipated nation, became the representative of its independence and unity. His fete day, which is also that of the Czar, elicited immense demonstrations throughout the country, while the Russian Consulate at Sofia, where a Te Deum was sung in honor of the Emperor, had to be guarded by troops from insult. The Sobranye assembling two days after, two hundred deputies sent a mes-

sage to Battenberg expressive of their desire to see among them their "hero Prince, the defender of Bulgarian liberty and independence." The officers of all the garrisons did the same. In the draft of a telegram to Alexander III., which the Sobranye voted after much opposition, an allusion to the Czar's expected future protection of Bulgaria had to be modified so that "defence" was substituted for "protection."

It is clear, the Bulgarian view of the relations of the Principality to the Empire is widely different from the Russian. The Bulgarians want no Russian protectorate, which Russia means to impose upon them. They aspire to be a nation, self governing and conquering, as their ancestors were a thousand years ago and earlier, and not merely the southernmost appendage of the Russian Empire. A Czar of Russia delivered them from the yoke of Turkey, another Czar endeavors to force upon them the yoke of Muscovy. Their national ambition is stronger than their national gratitude. The passions of the present obliterate the impressions of the past, however near. What was deemed generous aid bestowed by mighty kindred, appears now the work of a selfish, grasping, and overbearing policy of expansion and annexation. Bulgaria fears Russia, and may soon intensely hate her. This change of feeling might be indifferent to the great Slav Power if it had only moral bearings; but it mightly strengthens the hand of Austria, the vanguard of Germany, in the affairs of the Balkan Peninsula, especially as the methods employed by the friends and tools of Russia in dethroning Alexander are radically estranging the Kings of Rumania and Servia from Russian guidance and influence. Russia has, perhaps, little to lose in Servia, for King Milan is even now almost a vassal of Austria-Hungary; but Rumania is wavering between opposite policies, and the fate which has overtaken a Battenberg will weigh heavily in the decisions of the Hohenzollern. Whether the attempted assassination of the Rumanian Premier, Bratiano, has also sprung from pro-Russian revolutionary motives or not, must soon appear.

There is nothing mysterious or, for that matter, alarming about the military rising in Spain. The army has been "inside politics" in Spain for seventy years, and has conducted all the revolutions that have occurred. Nearly all the leading soldiers of the past half century have been also leading politicians. The consequence is that every ambitious officer, even among the subalterns, dreams more or less vividly of hastening his rise by some sort of political upturning, and a considerable number are constantly preparing for it by corrupting the men in the ranks. General Prim's career, short as it was, probably did more to demoralize the Spanish Army than any other incident of the present century, because he not only overthrew a dynasty, but set up a government of his own in its stead, and, in fact, when he died was a sort of Lord Protector of the Commonwealth. That the Regency has lasted so long without a military émeute is on the whole surprising.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

(WEDNESDAY, September 15, to TUESDAY, September 21, 1886, inclusive.)

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND on Tuesday left the Adirondacks for Washington, thus ending his vacation, which began on August 16.

A call for \$15,000,000 3 per cent. bonds was issued by the Treasury Department on Wednesday.

Word has been received at the Treasury Department from the revenue cutter *Corwin* in regard to the seizure of the British sealers. The *Corwin* captured the schooner *San Diego* on July 17, few miles from the Aleutian chain of islands, with 500 sealskins in cargo. On the 27th and 28th she caught two others, with full crews, salt boats, and a large supply of breech-loading arms and ammunition, for which no permits had been obtained. On August 1 two more vessels, the British schooners *Thornton* and *Carolina*, were taken in the act of seal catching, and on August 2 the British schooner *Onward* was overhauled. The vessels were taken to Unalashka, and the 2,100 sealskins captured were left in charge of the Deputy Marshal. Guttormsen, master of the *Thornton*, was found guilty, and sentenced to pay a fine of \$500 and be imprisoned for thirty days. Norman, the mate of the *Thornton*, was fined \$300. The captain and mate of the American schooner *San Diego* were found guilty. Capt. Raymond was sentenced to imprisonment for two months, and Mate Johnson to imprisonment for thirty days. It is assumed that the fines and sentences of imprisonment in other cases were similar to those given.

The annual report of Indian Commissioner Atkins, now in course of preparation, estimates for the expenses of all the Indian agencies for the coming fiscal year (including an increase of over \$175,000 for Indian schools) \$5,564,733. This is a decrease of \$1,763,316 upon the estimates of Indian Commissioner Price for the fiscal year 1886.

Recent information received at the Interior Department indicates that the work of inducing the Chippewa, Sioux, and Ute Indians in the Territories of Dakota, Idaho, New Mexico, Washington, and Arizona, and the States of Michigan, Wisconsin, and Nebraska, to divide up in severalty the lands now held by them in common, is making most satisfactory progress.

A plan of promotion has been prepared by the Civil Service Commissioners for submission to the President. It contemplates the formation of boards of promotion in each department in Washington, to be assisted by an auxiliary number from each bureau, to whom applications and candidates for promotion are to be presented. Applicants are to be subjected to practical examinations, and are to be rated and marked after examination and certified for promotion four at a time, just like successful candidates in the primary examinations before the Commission. The heads of bureaus or divisions are to have the privilege of marking the papers of candidates as to efficiency.

In the United States Court at Cincinnati on Monday the great telephone case was opened.

The official vote of Maine for Governor, except a few small towns, returns from which have not been received, gives the following result: Bodwell (Rep.), 68,837; Edwards (Dem.), 55,987; Clark (Pro.), 3,872; scattering, 20. Bodwell's plurality, 12,850.

The Wisconsin Democrats on Wednesday nominated Gilbert M. Woodford, a lawyer of La Crosse, for Governor. Charles Jonas, the Racine Socialist who was selected by President Cleveland as Consul to Prague, but whom Austria declined to receive because he was a political exile, had been the second choice of most of the delegates for gubernatorial honors, but early in the morning the Convention hall was flooded with a circular from a committee

of Milwaukee Socialists, absolutely demanding that the Convention nominate Jonas on account of his pronounced Socialistic tendencies. This destroyed his chances. The platform commends Congress for restoring land granted to railroads to the public domain, condemns the leasing of convict labor to contractors, favors a revenue tariff, opposes "lawlessness or mob violence," and says: "We send cordial greeting to President Cleveland and his Cabinet, and our hearty commendation of their wise and patriotic administration of public affairs, in accordance with the principles and pledges of the Democratic party; an Administration which, by its purity, fidelity, and ability, has commanded the respect of all parties and classes of men in the United States, and revived the faith of all in the principles of free government; and we especially commend Postmaster-General Vilas for his economic management of his department, and for his successful opposition to the so-called Pacific Mail subsidy, wherein he faithfully adhered to Democratic principles, and triumphantly vindicated the pledges of the party to oppose the tyranny and greed of monopoly."

The People's party in Wisconsin (Socialist) nominated a full State ticket on Thursday, with John Cochrane for Governor.

The Pennsylvania Greenbackers on Thursday nominated R. J. Houston for Governor with a full ticket.

The first National Convention of Anti-Saloon Republicans met in Chicago on Thursday. About 300 delegates were present. Ex-Senator William Windom was made permanent Chairman. In his address he said: "We are here under the call of true and loyal Republicans, desiring, through that party, to accomplish what we believe will be a great good for the American people. For myself, I never had the slightest thought of attempting to organize a new political party. I think that such a thought does not enter the minds of any other delegate here present. The party that freed the slave, that dignified human labor, that enacted homestead laws, that suppressed the great rebellion, that defended its honor in peace, and advanced it to the front rank of the nations of the earth, is good enough for me now." A platform was adopted declaring war against the saloon, and holding that the Government should restrict and control its influence; asserting that the national Government should absolutely prohibit the manufacture and sale of liquor in the Territories; approving as the best means for dealing with the traffic local-option laws and the submission of constitutional amendments; making the saloons responsible for all public and private injury resulting from the traffic; and in conclusion saying: "We demand that the Republican party, to which we belong, and whose welfare we cherish, shall take a firm and decided stand as the friend of the home and the enemy of the saloon, in favor of this policy and these measures. We pledge ourselves to do our utmost to cause the party to take such a stand. And we call upon all temperance men and all friends of humanity, of whatever party or name, to join with us in securing these objects and in support of the Republican party, so far as it shall adopt them." The National Committee decided to present memorials to the State Republican conventions, and to do everything possible to get the party to commit itself to temperance everywhere.

The New York Democratic State Committee met in Saratoga on Tuesday. John O'Brien resigned the Chairmanship, and ex-Congressman Walker of Steuben was elected in his place. He is a supporter of Gov. Hill. It was voted not to hold a State Convention, and the motion to appoint a Committee to confer with the Republican Committee in regard to a nominee for a Judge of the Court of Appeals was defeated. An adjournment was taken to September 29.

At a meeting of the Sub-Executive Commit-

tee of the County Democracy on Wednesday evening, with Senator Michael C. Murphy in the chair, a resolution was unanimously adopted "that the Chairman appoint 100 members of the organization, of which the Chairman shall be one, to wait upon the Hon. Edward Cooper upon his return from Europe, for the purpose of cordially welcoming him home, and of expressing to him the unanimous desire of the County Democracy that he will consent to again take an active and foremost part in the conduct of its affairs."

Martin Irons, the leader of the Knights of Labor strike on the Missouri Pacific Railroad last spring, was arrested in Kansas City on Sunday night, and taken to St. Louis to answer to the charges found against him in the indictment for complicity in tapping the private telegraph wires running into Vice-President Hoxie's residence.

A hurricane passed through parts of Illinois, Indiana, Wisconsin, and Michigan on Thursday, doing considerable damage. In Terre Haute many large buildings were unroofed. At Howell, Mich., a man was killed. A large number of small towns suffered severely. Montezuma, a small town in Indiana, is said to have been wiped out of existence.

FOREIGN.

In an interview with Prince Bismarck, M. de Giers, the Russian Foreign Minister, distinctly promised that Russia would not occupy Bulgaria. The British Government has decided to rely on European concert and refrain from any special or isolated action. The probable result of Russian aggression in Bulgaria will be Great Britain's permanent hold on Egypt.

The Bulgarian Sobranye has resolved to prolong the state of siege in Bulgaria; also to court-martial eighteen officers inculpated in the kidnaping of Prince Alexander, in order to restore the discipline and morale of the army. The Sobranye's reply to M. Stambuloff's speech at the opening of the session denounces the "infamous coup de main" of August 21, which was organized by a handful of miscreants, and which caused a feeling of deep revolt among the Bulgarians, obliging them with their valorous army to rise like one man to defend the honor and independence of the Crown." It demands that the authors of the revolt receive exemplary punishment; says that Bulgarians cannot find words to express their admiration for the unprecedented self-abnegation and patriotism shown by Prince Alexander, and assures the Regency that the Deputies will do their utmost to assist the Government in preserving order and saving the country from imminent peril. England, Austria, and Italy have recognized the Bulgarian Regency. The Sobranye also adopted an address to the Czar praying for his protection over the liberty and independence of the country.

The Committee of the Sobranye appointed to examine into and report upon the circumstances of the recent *coup d'état* in Bulgaria have concluded their investigations. They pronounce MM. Karaveloff, Nikiforoff, and Zankoff jointly criminally responsible for the affair, and recommend that all three be suspended from Parliamentary immunity.

Cols. Motkuroff and Nicolaieff, the latter of whom is Bulgarian Minister of War, both declare that unless Alexander's kidnappers be punished, a revolution may break out at any moment. The trial of the revolutionists by court-martial is proceeding in spite of Russian prohibition, and is considered a direct act of rebellion against Russia. The Sobranye has voted a grant of \$500,000 to purchase all of Prince Alexander's property in Bulgaria, retaining from the whole sum \$185,000 with which to liquidate the Prince's indebtedness to the National Bank. The Russian agent has informed the Bulgarian Government that Russia has not only resolved to maintain the independence of Bulgaria, but has reserved for

herself the right of defending it. It is stated in Constantinople that England, Austria, and Germany have invited Turkey to occupy Rumania if Russia invades Bulgaria.

M. Bratiano, Rumanian Prime Minister, was shot at on Thursday evening by an assassin. M. Bratiano perceived the man's intention in time to avoid his aim. The bullet struck M. Robesco, a member of the Chamber of Deputies, and wounded him. The assassin was arrested and locked up. He confessed that for political reasons he intended to kill M. Bratiano. The weapon used was a pistol. The attempt produced great excitement among the people.

The German Reichstag was opened on Thursday. The speech from the throne was confined to an explanation of the objects of the commercial treaty with Spain. The Socialists adopted obstruction tactics.

The German Bundesrat has agreed to prolong the minor state of siege of the city of Berlin.

France has given Germany satisfactory assurances recently, and the tension between the two countries caused by the actions of Gen. Boulanger and French Chauvinists has largely vanished. The relations between the Paris and Berlin Governments are now better than they have been for a long time.

A revolution was attempted on Sunday evening by a regiment of Spanish infantry in Madrid. They rushed through the streets crying, "Live the Republic!" The insurgents attempted among their first exploits to secure possession of the arsenals, docks, and barracks, which they attacked with open fire, but all these places were well and successfully defended, and the rebels were repulsed. Finally, their reverses drawing them together, the insurgents attacked and got possession of the Southern Railway. By this time the authorities had fully prepared to master the situation. The loyal troops were marched to the railway, and after a short fight they completely dislodged the revolutionists, who dispersed into the country, Gen. Favia pursuing. During the fighting in the city one of the officers leading the insurgents was shot and killed. The rebels shot Gen. Velarde in skirmish. They also mortally wounded Count Mirasol and killed a colonel of artillery. The rebel leader was Brig.-Gen. Villacampa. Perfect quiet prevails in Madrid and the provinces. Only about 300 soldiers rebelled, and only about forty rebel cavalrymen are now at large. They will probably soon be captured. Arrests of Republicans continue. All the officers implicated have been condemned to death.

The Pope's course in favoring the Jesuits has caused general dismay in Italy. Public meetings will be held to pray the Government to enforce inexorably the laws against them.

The state entry of the Marquis of Londonderry into Dublin on Saturday was made with the usual official demonstration, but was devoid of incident. The Marquis was accompanied by his wife, Lady Londonderry. They were received in Westland Row by a crowd which cheered them. Both the Marquis and Lady Londonderry rode thither from the station on horseback. When the couple departed from the railroad station they were greeted with cheers, followed by groans. The entire route from the railway station to Dublin Castle was lined with troops. Most of the buildings were decorated. The Hibernian Bank building was conspicuous by its total lack of flags, bunting, or decoration. All along the route the cheers were mingled with groans, the former predominating.

There was a desperate riot in Belfast on Sunday. Policemen arrested two drunken men who were fighting. A mob gathered and attacked the barracks where the prisoners were confined. There were only four constables

within. They fired eleven rounds, killing one man and wounding several others. The mob was scattered by reinforcements of police. Rioting was renewed between the Catholics and Orangemen on Monday and Tuesday.

Two serious riots occurred in Liverpool on Sunday. One resulted from an encounter between Orangemen and Nationalists; the other had its origin in inflammatory speeches made at a Socialist meeting in Toxteth Park. The police had the greatest difficulty in suppressing the outbreak. Many of the rioters were arrested.

During the debate in the House of Commons on Wednesday night a Parnellite charged that the Government refused to pay any attention to remedies for local grievances of the Irish people. Lord Randolph Churchill replied that the accusation was unfounded. The Government, he said, would make proposals to Parliament at the earliest moment possible for placing all questions of local government and public works in Ireland in the hands of the Irish people, and therefore he thought it would be no more than fair to give the Government time to develop these intended measures, instead of protracting the business before the House by enforcing the discussion of details, with a constant repetition of every imaginable grievance which Irishmen might have. It is now understood that, after further talk on the Irish constabulary appropriations, the Parnellites will cease their obstructive tactics, and the appropriations will be rapidly passed. Parliament will probably be prorogued on September 25.

Mr. Gladstone reappeared in the House of Commons on Monday night, and was warmly received. Lord Randolph Churchill announced that the Government would at the next session introduce a bill to facilitate the transfer of land, reducing the legal costs. Mr. Parnell, in moving the second reading of his Land Bill, said that the recent elections conveyed a mandate to the House of Commons that it should show itself willing and able to provide for the wants of Ireland equally as if it were an Irish Parliament. If the Government, he said, armed with this bill, should stay evictions in Kerry, it would do more to restore peace than all the Gen. Bullers put together. He claimed that the bill was essentially moderate, and calculated to pull matters smoothly through the winter. Mr. Parnell spoke for one hour and twenty minutes. Mr. Gladstone was loudly cheered on rising to speak. In the course of his address he said in substance: It was too late now to argue that it was impossible to distinguish between those who were unable and those who were disinclined to pay rent, because Parliament had more than once recognized that it was possible to draw an act with such distinction. Mr. Gladstone said he had never committed himself as to the rents of leaseholders, and therefore could hold himself open to consider what was said on the subject by both Nationalists and Conservatives, retaining full liberty to adopt the best form in which the measure should ultimately appear. He felt bound in honor and justice to vote for the second reading of the bill, which, apart from general policy, he believed was absolutely necessary, in consequence of an important proceeding of the Government by which they were committed to propositions of the deepest importance—propositions involving the country in consequences the magnitude of which perhaps none of them was fully capable of realizing.

The Land Bill was defeated on Tuesday night by a vote of 202 to 297. All the Gladstonians supported the Parnellites. 31 Unionists voted with the Government. Sir Michael Hicks Beach intimated that the Government might call an early session of Parliament to pass a coercion bill.

Sir Charles Dilke has returned to London. It is already announced that he will reenter

public life as proprietor and editor of a London daily newspaper.

John Liphot Hatton, the British composer, is dead at the age of seventy seven. He was the author of many popular songs and a number of operettas.

The Duc Decazes died in France on Friday. He was the eldest son of a French statesman and was born in 1819. He entered the diplomatic service, but retired during the revolution of 1848. Subsequently he was elected a member of the Conseil Général of the Gironde. In 1871 he was returned to the National Assembly by the Department of the Gironde. He resisted all attacks on the Government of Thiers, and was in September, 1873, sent as ambassador to England. Two months afterwards he took the portfolio of Foreign Affairs, and held it through a number of Cabinet changes till October, 1877. He was a commander of the Legion of Honor.

Abbé Liszt's will makes Caroline Wittgenstein his sole heiress.

Advices from Merv state that warfare is being waged between the Afghans and the inhabitants of Badakhshan. Fighting has been going on for a fortnight. An attempt on the part of the Afghans to annex Badakhshan has led to the struggle. The British troops remain neutral.

The total number of cholera cases throughout Japan since its first appearance this year is, according to the *Japan Gazette*, 59,000, of which 37,000 resulted fatally. The indications are that the epidemic is now abating. Intelligence from Seoul, Corea, says cholera is still raging in that city. According to official returns the fatal cases for July this year were 38,600 out of a population of 250,000.

The Hawaiian Government has authorized the placing of a loan of \$2,000,000 on the London market, the bonds to bear 6 per cent, interest, redeemable in twenty years.

Exciting reports have been received at Melbourne of arbitrary French action in the New Hebrides. The Rev. Mr. McDonald, a Presbyterian missionary at Havanna Harbor, says that the French Hebrides Company have seized the lands of the native Christian mission, alleging prior title, and that the French commandant threatened the natives with armed force if they resisted. The company also claims lands of other British subjects. Mr. McDonald asserts that the French practically exercise sovereignty over the islands. A collision between the natives and the French is imminent. The Premiers of the Australian colonies are about to hold a conference to consider the situation.

In his annual message to the Mexican Congress on Thursday, President Diaz said in regard to the Cutting incident: "We must congratulate ourselves that in such an emergency the dignity of the Government and the good name of the country could be saved without a serious conflict, thanks to the prudent and strictly legal conduct of the courts and authorities of the State of Chihuahua, as well as to the good sense of our own people and of the Government of the United States, which, when better informed, did not insist on its demand which gave rise to this transient difficulty. Texas papers have on this account alighted to other cases of alleged outrage on citizens of that country by officials of our own. In their eagerness to accumulate charges against Mexico they have referred mistakenly to the case of an individual named Francisco Arresures, the author of various crimes committed on our territory. It will suffice to observe that Arresures was of Mexican nationality, and was voluntarily delivered by the Texan authorities to a force of the State of Coahuila without any previous demand for his extradition, so that in this case it will be seen that, as regards this supposed citizen of the United States, there is no occasion for controversy between the two Governments."

BAD NEWS FOR PROTECTIONISTS.

THERE was a distinct protectionist reaction in Europe, seven or eight years ago, which gave great comfort to the high-tariff men in this country, and started the "fair trade" movement in England. We do not think free-traders were anywhere much troubled by it, knowing it must soon run its course. Well, it has run its course, or very nearly so. Germany, France, and Austria all went back in a headlong way to the old system. They are now all getting sorry or doubtful. In France the attempt to put up the duty on foreign grain has failed, and the protection of the sugar industry has been prolonged with great difficulty. In Belgium, also, the effort recently made to secure protection for agriculture did not succeed. In Austria a circular of the new Minister of Commerce, the Marquis de Bacquehem, to the chambers of commerce is full of significance, and has, the correspondent of the *Journal des Débats* says, produced the effect of a *coup d'état* at Vienna. The treaties of commerce with Germany and Italy expire next year. The Austrian Government is occupied now with the question of their renewal. If the protectionist policy is to prevail, they ought not to be renewed. But the Marquis de Bacquehem says: "It is important to maintain intact the outlets offered to the commerce, agriculture, and manufactures of the country. Nay, it is desirable to increase these outlets in various directions. But the only way to do this is to have with the other Powers treaties of commerce based on stipulated tariffs. The conclusion of such treaties is now the work before the Government."

In Spain, a commercial treaty giving England the treatment of the most favored nation has been carried by a heavy majority, in spite of the opposition of the Catalonians. But it is in Germany that the progress of the anti-protectionist reaction is most significant and interesting. It is described at some length by a correspondent of the *Journal des Économistes*, writing from Frankfort. We select from his letter, which is too long for translation, some of the most striking points. In the first place, he says, the reports of the chambers of commerce, which are revised by the Government before publication, used to be divided in sentiment touching Prince Bismarck's policy. Those of the great manufacturing centres were always highly laudatory; those of the commercial ports much less so. Now they are all agreed that it has not borne the fruits which were expected of it, and that the industrial crisis which has arisen under it, is extremely severe. For instance, the Germans have been selling steel rails abroad at extremely low prices, while getting very good ones at home. Recently, however, one of the combinations of the manufacturers was broken up, and an English company promptly stepped in, and, in spite of the tariff, beat Krupp and the other native steel works in competition for the delivery at Stettin of 600 tons of steel rails. Then some of the frontier towns are suffering very severely. Koenigsberg used to live on the Russian grain trade, but the German grain is now so well protected that only 20,000 tons of Russian wheat came into Koenigsberg this year, in place of nearly 61,000 in 1884.

The same place used also to do a good business with Russia in tea, but the Russian tariff has killed this, so that the city appears almost in a state of decay. Danzig is suffering in the same way, from the same causes, aggravated by the expulsion of the Poles and Russian Jews, who played an important part in the local trade.

The correspondent goes on to add: "The conclusions to be drawn from the economical facts with which the condition of Germany presents us to-day, are these: First, that it is impossible to foresee the exact effect of customs duties, or in what manner they will affect those branches of industry which are not protected; secondly, every duty on raw materials or on a partially manufactured article weighs heavily on all producers who use it, and does more harm on the whole than good to those who are protected; third, the country is beginning to suffer from excessive production, and the practical difficulties in the way of clearing the ground are very great."

The duties on grain, he says, seem to have had the result of making bread cheaper for the free-trade countries. It has fallen in London and risen in Paris since the duties were put on, so that the industrial competitors of France and Germany can to-day live more cheaply than the French and Germans, as a consequence of the French and German tariffs. The distillation of alcohol has also received great encouragement from the Bismarck tariff. The result is, that the price has fallen from 51 marks per hectolitre in 1884 to 35 marks in 1886, owing to the enormous production, for which there is no longer any sufficient outlet. So the distillers are calling for more protection and for bimetallism, in the fashion with which we are so familiar here. The Government, having called them into existence, is, they think, bound to provide for them somehow.

PLUMBERS AND APPRENTICES.

THE Journeymen Plumbers' Society have published an answer to some recent strictures of ours on their opposition to apprentices. We are sorry the answer was not more specific. The journeymen's side of this class of questions is seldom presented to the general public in this country with clearness and sobriety—a point in which American workmen are far behind their brethren in England. It would be interesting to know exactly what it is the journeymen plumbers have to say to the charges brought by the master plumbers which have led to the present strike. Just now, the prejudices of the public are all on the side of the masters. Nearly everybody who owns or rents a house has suffered from bad plumbing; and as it is the journeymen who actually do the work, the blame, whether justly or unjustly, is generally cast on them, although it may in many cases be the fault of the poor materials furnished by the masters. When one finds, for instance, as has been our own experience, a concealed joint simply plastered together with putty, one finds it hard to believe that the master ordered the journeyman to do the work in this way. One is, on the contrary, irresistibly driven to the conclusion that the journeyman did it in

that way to save himself trouble, and that the master knew nothing about it.

It has long been charged, too, and we dare say with much truth, that at the bottom of the trouble about the apprentices is the readiness of the masters to make half-taught boys do work at low wages for which they charge customers full price. We do not know to what extent this practice has prevailed, or is by the journeymen plumbers alleged to prevail, or, in other words, to what extent they consider the masters' eagerness for apprentices a mere cover for eagerness for bad cheap labor. A little fuller explanation on this point would be very desirable.

But we think we do know why it is that the public doubts the sincerity of all professions, made by trades unions, of interest in the thorough training of the young in the mechanical arts. It is that they see that nearly every trades union has rules intended to prevent any of its members reaping the benefit of any sort of superiority, whether it lies in diligence or industry, or skill, or inventiveness. Their regulations, in fact, generally aim at keeping every member down in the practice of his calling to the level of the laziest, or most stupid, or least ambitious. As man has made his way out of the woods and caves largely by the extra exertions of the more favored individuals of the race, people are generally naturally disposed to look on such regulations as hostile to civilization itself. What would be thought of the doctors, for instance, if they were to draw up rules forbidding any member of the profession from making more than a specified number of visits a day, or attempting any new operation, or any operation in a new way, or introducing any remedy which seemed likely to diminish practice? Or what would be thought of the lawyers if they not only fixed the fees which a member of the profession was to charge clients, but the number of hours per day which he could devote to his cases, and were to forbid his seeing clients in the evening, or arguing any cause more than half an hour? People, of course, find it hard to believe that a body is deeply interested in the manual training of young men which, after they are ready for their trade, inflicts penalties for extra exertions, and discourages every display of extraordinary talent or ingenuity.

Nothing is more necessary, particularly in the United States, in all callings than thorough preparatory training, in plumbing perhaps more than in any other mechanical trade; but boys will never be got to take it patiently as long as, after they have acquired it, they have to take on the present depressing trade-union yoke. They will learn just enough to get them into a union, and then rely on it to save them from the natural consequences of negligence, stupidity, and incapacity. It is the poor workmen who most love the unions as now organized, and the reason is obvious.

One thing more: One of the leading grievances of the masters is that the Union has taken, or tried to take, the management of their shops entirely out of their hands by seeking to enforce regulations of their own making. Now a shop and plant mean savings, and when you try to regulate a man's shop for him you really try to take out of his hands the management of

his savings. It seems to us, and we think to the vast majority of the American people, that the proper course for workingmen who do not like the way employers manage their savings, is to let them alone and go to work and accumulate savings of their own. We see but little sign of this, however, in any of the recent labor movements. In spite of all the talk, we do not hear of the opening of one co-operative shop carried on with workingmen's own savings. Instead of this the air is full of denunciations of everybody who has saved money, and is trying in any business to make a profit out of it. People who spend less than they receive are reprobated as tyrants, extortioners, leeches, and what not, as if saving was the curse of modern society, and the only true man was the man who from year to year only barely made ends meet. And yet, unless we are to go back to breech-clouts and wigwams, somebody must save something every year; and nobody will save if it be once established that any man he hires by the day becomes his partner, with a controlling interest in his business.

"SALOONS."

No matter what a man's opinion may be about the feasibility of prohibition or the physical or moral effects of alcoholic drinks, he cannot deny that "saloons" are the curse of American politics and society; that none of them, whether Democratic or Republican, are entitled to any "protection" whatever; that if they could be all shut up, it would be a great thing for the country; and that even if they cannot be all shut up, they can be at least diminished in number and made less mischievous. For passing judgment on them no particular views on the liquor question are necessary. The teetotaler, the moderate drinker, the high-license man, and the prohibitionist can all unite in a crusade against them. If, therefore, the Republican movement against them were genuine and sincere, all good men would rejoice over it. The greatest objection to it, and in fact one may say the only one, is that it is not sincere; that it means simply "planks," or, in other words, that it is simply a sop thrown to the ardent Prohibitionist to keep him in the Republican ranks in 1888; and one of the greatest objections to the prohibition movement is, that it has but few terrors for the saloon-keepers, so well do they know that its volleys are sure to pass over their heads. The high license, in the hands of good Excise Commissioners, they dread; but about prohibition they feel very much as they feel about punishment in a future life—that it is something so remote that a practical man can hardly be expected to take it into serious consideration.

To say that the saloons are, all over the country, nurseries of vice and crime, is to repeat a commonplace. In this respect they receive plenty of denunciation from reformers and philanthropists of all shades of opinion. But their effect on politics does not receive half enough attention. It is they, more than any other single agency, which make the problem of municipal government in America so formidable. They give political power and importance in all cities to probably the worst class of men

in America. All party managers are almost compelled to accept the services of liquor-dealers as captains of fifties and captains of hundreds, and, having accepted them, the party becomes dependent on the liquor interest and bound to conciliate it. The saloon is not simply a place to which men resort for society and exhilaration. It is almost invariably a political club, of which the liquor-dealer is the head, and he goes into politics for precisely the same reason for which he sells liquor. All his political influence is corrupting. Everything that he tells his customers of what is going on in politics, confirms them in the belief that it is simply a means of robbing the taxpayer. When they put him in office, it is for the avowed purpose of plundering and sharing with them. Whatever he may be in politics, too, whether alderman or school trustee, his voice is always raised on the side of corruption and disorder. We have had innumerable liquor-dealers in office in this city during the past forty years, but we doubt if anybody can recall a single case in which one of them raised a finger or said a word on the side of good government, and did not stand as far as he could in the way of every attempt at purification and improvement, or failed to fill his pockets with public money whenever he got a chance.

There never has been, in fact, in any age or country, a trade so distinctly marked out for legal censure and discouragement as liquor-dealing in the United States in our time. Whatever be the merits or demerits of alcoholic drinks, the man who sells them seems always prone to become a social nuisance, and his shop a fountain of evil. Whatever cuts down the numbers of the class, or diminishes its power and importance, is good legislation, whether it diminishes the actual consumption of liquor or not. And, fully convinced as we are of the folly of prohibition as a political movement, we admit freely that wherever prohibition diminishes the number of liquor-dealers and makes them hide their heads, it does not wholly fail. Something is gained when the liquor-dealer is driven into obscurity and the saloon closed, even if the drinking does go on as badly as ever.

GUIDES FOR WOMEN.

One of Howells's novels, we forget just now which, has a woman who exclaims enthusiastically to her hero, "Tell me things to do." This strong feminine desire for guidance in life has, as we all know, long furnished the stock explanation of the influence of priests over women, and of the large part played in family life in Catholic countries by "The Spiritual Director." It is maintained, in fact, by numerous sociologists and psychologists, in opposition to the friends of the "emancipation of women," that there is nothing which the sex, as a whole, less desires than emancipation; that what most women really in their inmost souls most long for, is somebody to "tell them things to do"—that is, to mark out a path for them in all those fields of life in which circumstances leave them free, and to solve for them questions of casuistry. That a man is usually selected to do this work of guidance is due, they say, simply to the fact that men are

just as anxious to control other people's wills as women are to surrender their wills; or, in other words, that when a woman is looking about for a director of her conscience or of her acts, she is apt to take a man simply because he comes handiest, and that a domineering woman would do just as well.

A good deal of support for this view is to be found in a curious little book to which the London *Daily News* has recently called attention, called "The Directory of Girls' Societies." It contains all needful information about the numerous clubs, unions, and associations which, it appears, now exist in England, for the purpose of telling the immense body of idle and half-idle women all over the United Kingdom "things to do." We know of nothing of this kind in the United States except the "Society for Home Study," which has its headquarters in Boston, and sends courses of study to women all over the country, and examines them in these courses afterwards, all by letter. Of course the amount of benefit derived from the instruction depends absolutely on the honesty of the student. If she answers the questions in the examination, as bad boys sometimes do in college, by the help of "cribs," she simply imposes useless labor on the examiner and on herself.

The English societies are conducted on the same trustful plan. There are some for the reading of good books; others for the production of magazines, for the cultivation of drawing, of needlework, of music, of painting, for the promotion of early rising and of outdoor exercise. The rules prescribe the precise manner in which the work is to be done, and even levy fines for violations, the offender, of course, informing against herself before the penalty can be inflicted. The members of the early-rising clubs, for instance, have to enter in a book the precise hour at which they go to bed at night and get up in the morning, and at which dressing is finished, and the excuse, if any, for delinquencies. So minute are the directions that the members of the musical society are warned against putting their pianos against their neighbors' walls, against "pounding the notes," and against singing or playing when there is a death in an adjoining house, until after the funeral has taken place. The members of the "Outdoor" club have in like manner to take one hour's healthful exercise between eight A. M. and six P. M., and report themselves for punishment, in case of default, and have in their report book to state the exact nature of the exercise taken.

We doubt very much, however, whether these societies furnish as strong proof of the feminine love of guidance as the *Daily News* seems to imagine. What they show most clearly is the frightful vacuity of the lives led in England by an enormous number of middle-class women. If the men were condemned, by exclusion from the trades and professions, from sporting and from club lounging, to the same endless idleness in dull houses, they would probably be glad to invent light yokes for their own shoulders, and find agreeable occupation even in recording and reporting their petty breaches of discipline. The multiplication of paid callings for women in England during

the past twenty years has been very great, but the number whom social prejudice, want of training, the opposition of relatives, or the possession of small annuities, condemns to absolute idleness in dreary suburbs, in dull country towns, and in lonely country houses, is still very great. To them the thought that there is anywhere in the world an unseen authority, not only ready to tell them things to do, but to insist on their doing them, must be a great relief merely as occupation. They probably feel, too, that an extra nap in the morning is made all the sweeter by the fact that it is unlawful, and must be reported and suffered for; or find luxury in remorse over the shirking of a walk, or over a weak resort to a novel or a newspaper in the hours appropriated to serious literature, simply because these are all new sensations.

ACADIA.

THE road from Halifax to the Evangeline country lies for the first eight miles along the shores of Bedford Basin, and then plunges into a sterile region where the stunted pine forests are broken only by dreary-looking ponds, with here and there a small settlement. This barren wilderness, which extends over the greater part of the peninsula, is only left behind when the Ardoise Mountain, at the western end of the range which forms the watershed of the eastern counties, is crossed. It is also a barrier to the Atlantic fogs, and the train suddenly emerges from the desolate woods, shrouded in mist, into a land of cultivated fields, orchards, and meadows, smiling in the sunlight. But there is not time enough to catch, from the summit of the pass, more than a glimpse of the garden of Nova Scotia before the descent is made into the valley of the Avon, on whose right bank, ten miles from its mouth, is the town of Windsor. The river at this point is about a quarter of a mile wide, and, at high tide, is a noble stream, whose red waters are nearly even with the top of the dikes which prevent them from flooding the adjacent meadows. A few hours later the stream has disappeared, with the exception of a little water flowing sluggishly in the middle of the river-bed, which, below the Falmouth bridge, consists of a red clay so hard that it is sometimes used as a race-course. The schooner which lay at the wharf in deep water is now lying high and dry on a clay shelf, just broad enough to hold it, raised some thirty feet above the channel.

Windsor is the university town of the province—King's College, a Church-of-England institution, being placed picturesquely in the edge of some noble woods on the crest of a hill overlooking the town, about a mile from the river. The Commencement, or Eucenia, as it is called here, is held in June; and the procession, when we saw it, headed by the Bishop of Nova Scotia in his robes, and the professors and graduates clad in richly colored gowns, with hoods of scarlet, purple, ermine, and green, as it wound down the road to the chapel, now in the deep shade of the trees, now in the broad light of day, was strikingly beautiful. The exercises themselves were very simple. After a service in the chapel, with a sermon from the Rector of the College, the degrees were given in the hall, the candidates being first presented to the governing body in the order of their respective faculties, and, having been accepted, retired to return immediately in the gown and hood of the color appropriate to their particular degree. This ceremony, which was accompanied by an amusing demonstration of the undergraduates, in humble

imitation of the uproar in Oxford on similar occasions, was followed by an address from the Rector, with a response by the Bishop.

From the ramparts of Fort Edward on the hill just above the station there is a fine view of the valley. Little is left of the fort itself except a block-house in excellent preservation, and probably one of the best existing specimens of the block-houses which played so important a part in the early history of our country. Although this particular military post has no historical interest, the fort having been built about the time of the settlement of Halifax simply to overawe the mutinous French of Grand Pré and its neighboring villages, yet in a country where historic monuments are so few, it is certainly to be hoped that it will never suffer the fate of the far more interesting Annapolis block-house, which, some years ago, was ruthlessly pulled down because it showed symptoms of decay.

It is but a short ride from Windsor to the Basin of Minas, on whose southwestern shore are the rich meadows and orchard-clad hills known as the Evangeline country, after the mythical heroine of Longfellow's poem. On the sites of the old French settlements which were destroyed at the time of the removal of the Acadians in 1755, there are now pretty villages, whose white houses, half hidden by the trees, present a very attractive appearance. In the summer months they are thronged with people who have come, chiefly from the towns on the Atlantic coast, to enjoy this wealth of verdure and almost tropical sunshine. It would be difficult, indeed, to find pleasanter places in which to pass a few weeks than these villages—Wolfville or Kentville, for instance—which apparently have not yet lost that freshness and simplicity which formerly characterized all our New England villages, but now are so rarely to be found in them. In whatever direction one may go, the bright waters of the Basin, nearly encircled by mountains, among which the noble mass of Blomidon is preëminent, give an ever-changing beauty to the landscape. From the top of this mountain, a long but not difficult drive, there is a superb view of the Basin and the surrounding country. But the foot of its great precipice, which rises abruptly from the water's edge nearly 600 feet, can only be reached by boat, as is also the case with numerous places on the Basin which are noted for striking geological phenomena and are rich in minerals and precious stones. These excursions, however, are always attended with more or less risk on account of the tides and the extreme uncertainty of the winds. Then, on the other side of the hills, to the south, lies the wilderness with its numberless opportunities for hunting and fishing. Within easy driving distance from Kentville is the picturesque Gaspereaux Lake, and, if one is so inclined, the drive may be prolonged past its shores through the wild Blue Mountain region, across the peninsula to Chester, at the head of Mahone Bay, the most beautiful on the Atlantic coast.

To the passing traveller the people appear very like their New England neighbors. Those subtle differences in life and thought which constitute for the American one of the peculiar charms of Halifax society, one would, of course, not expect to find here. There, too, nearly every one has close family ties with England, or "home," as they invariably call it; but the further one gets from Halifax the closer is the connection with the States, for the same reason. Probably a prolonged stay would enable one to discover the distinctive characteristics of the Acadian which do not lie on the surface; still, the charm of his country lies in its beautiful scenery and the simplicity of its life, rather than in any foreign impression that it gives. Base-ball, however, has not yet supplanted cricket, and occasionally the garrison or

naval cricket team comes to play a match with the village club, and, as it brings a band, the game is followed in the evening by a ball. Possibly during the season there may also be a visit from one of the men-of-war of the Halifax station, with a busy round of afternoon teas, dances on shipboard, and balls on shore.

It is hardly necessary to remind the intending visitor that this is not a land crowded with associations of the past and filled with interesting ruins. The tragic fate of the Acadians is the single incident which stands out distinct from their monotonous existence of a century and a half. All traces of the Acadian habitations even have disappeared, save a ruined cellar or two, and the names of the streams and prominent physical features of the country are almost the only things to remind one that Evangeline and Gabriel once dwelt on these shores. Close to the station of Grand Pré there are the remains of a building said to be the church in which the men of the village were imprisoned by Winslow after he had told them of their intended removal. While it is useless to attempt to show who should bear the greater part of the responsibility for their removal, it may be well to say a few words as to their condition at the time. The popular impression, derived chiefly from Longfellow's poem, is that they were a peaceful, contented people, happy in the possession of homes in which their every simple want was supplied. The truth is almost the reverse of this picture. Between their desire to be loyal to the French King and at the same time obedient to their English Governor, their situation was too intolerable to admit of happiness or contentment. They were always professing to be willing under certain conditions to remove to Cape Breton or Canada, and were always dreading lest they should be compelled to do so. Their lands, as they made no new settlements, cleared no forests, built no roads after the English conquest, had become so subdivided with the increase of population as to be unable to support them, and they were at times dependent on the charity of the English for the very means of subsistence. They were, without a single exception, so far as the contemporary records permit us to judge, poor, ignorant, and superstitious peasants of the lowest grade, without energy enough to struggle against the fate which for half a century had been constantly hanging over them. The imagination of the poet alone has given a few of them an individuality which they did not possess in real life.

The Windsor and Annapolis Railway, after skirting the shore of the Basin of Minas for a short distance, turns to the southwest and runs for some sixty miles through a narrow valley, separated on the one hand by the South Mountain from the wilderness, and on the other hand from the Bay of Fundy by the North Mountain. This range begins at Blomidon, and with almost undiminished height forms the Bay shore, interrupted only by Digby Gut, nearly to the Atlantic. There are a few small towns in the valley thus enclosed, but none of special interest, nor does the scenery justify the extravagant language which some writers have used in regard to it. There are very pretty spots here and there, but in beauty it is not to be compared to many far less vaunted valleys in New England. The Annapolis River, which the road has followed nearly from its source, makes a sharp turn just before it empties into the Annapolis Basin, and on the tongue of land thus formed the town of the same name has been built. In itself, with a single exception, the place offers little to attract the visitor. Its small white houses are mostly huddled confusedly about the water's edge, though a few more substantial mansions, the homesteads of some of the oldest Nova Scotian families, are to be found on the road leading

back into the country. The exception is the old fort on a bluff at the mouth of the river. Besides an archway, a magazine, and a bomb-proof, there is nothing left but the grass-grown ramparts, over which the cows now quietly graze. The view from the outer bastion over the beautiful basin, more like an inland lake than an arm of the sea, with its encircling hills, on the north rising steep from the water's edge, but on the south receding so as to permit of villages with their orchards and cultivated fields along the shore, will linger long in the memory.

To one familiar with its eventful history, this spot has an interest far surpassing that of the more widely known Grand Pré. It is doubtful, indeed, whether any military post in the country has had such varied fortunes as this, from the time of its first occupation in 1605 down to its dismantling in our own days. In the struggle for this place, it may be said, began the fierce contest between France and England for the possession of North America. Here, after the "horns' nest," as the New Englanders called it, at last fell into their hands, for forty years, from 1710 to 1750, a little garrison, often reduced by want and neglect to a few score men, held in check the thousands of French, hostile to a man, not of this valley only, but of all Acadia. The last of its many captures was in August, 1781, when a small band of American "rebels" landed by night from two schooners of ten and twelve guns, manned by eighty men, and surprised the garrison, who surrendered without resistance. In the morning the men and boys of the place also were imprisoned in the block-house by the rebels, who plundered the town and reembarked by noon of that day. With this inglorious episode its military history ended, though for many years afterwards it was garrisoned by the English. The Imperial Government still owns the fort grounds, and it is probable that they will always be preserved in their present undisturbed condition.

The excursions about Annapolis are very similar to those from the villages in the Evangeline country, though those upon the water lack the interest as well as the danger of those on the Basin of Minas. There is one, however, which is peculiar to this place. Crossing the river and passing through the little town of Granville, a steep climb of an hour brings one to the top of the North Mountain, whence there are extensive views—on one side, of the valley; on the other, of the Bay of Fundy. The two seasons when the Annapolis valley is seen at its best are the spring, when it is like a flower garden from the apple and cherry blossoms, and the fall, when the orchards are golden with fruit. The homeward-bound traveller has a choice of several ways of returning to the States from Annapolis. If he is in haste, he can take a steamer direct to Boston or St. John. Should time be no object, he can drive to Digby by a road going through the beautiful country lying between the South Mountain and the Basin. At this place he can take the steamer or the cars to Yarmouth, and there the steamer to Boston.

JOMINI'S CAMPAIGNS OF 1812.

PARIS, September 7, 1886.

It is interesting, after having read Tolstoi's "War and Peace," to read the two volumes just published under the title "Political and Military Account of the Campaigns of 1812-1814," extracted from the inedited papers of the famous Gen. Jomini. Tolstoi denies the very existence of what historians call military art, strategy, even tactics. Jomini is the great theorist who looks upon war as a science and an art. Men appear to him as they would to a Moltke—as mere atoms

and molecules: he knows nothing but great masses conducted by a will. He decomposes an army into great units—divisions, brigades, regiments—and plays with these units as people play chess. Tolstoi knows only the soldier; Jomini knows only the general, the commander-in-chief.

The two new volumes have been edited by Col. Lecomte, of the Swiss army, a well-known writer on military matters. The Swiss have always shown a remarkable love of war. They have furnished Spain, France, Rome, Naples, with regiments; even as mere mercenaries they have forced the world to admire their prowess, their discipline, their high sentiment of the peculiar sort of honor which is symbolized by the flag. In modern times, though Switzerland is protected by its neutrality, the art of war is highly thought of in the Confederation, and the staff of the Federal army has officers who are well versed in all the improvements of warfare. Col. Lecomte is perhaps the most conspicuous of these officers, and his works are read in many countries. He is one of those dilettanti who, like Jomini, love the art of war in itself; who judge a great strategical operation as an artist judges a picture or a statue. He was eminently competent to pass a judgment on Jomini:

"The great merit of Jomini," he says, "was not in having written the thirty precious volumes which he left behind him, but a small chapter called 'Fundamental Principles of the Art of War,' which, at the time when it was written (1804), and printed at Glogau (1807), was no less than a sort of revelation. He gave in it the formulæ of rules which were then unknown, as they existed only in the brain of the great captains, who were more anxious to conceal than to demonstrate them. In this domain, where he was followed by numerous disciples, among whom were the brilliant Archduke Charles of Austria, the learned Clausewitz, without reckoning many others, Jomini played the part of the initiator. He really was a great discoverer, as much as Fulton, Franklin, Harvey, etc. . . . All his volumes on the war of Frederick the Great, of the Revolution, of the Empire, his opuscules on contemporary wars, are mere developments of this little chapter."

Jomini was born in 1779 (March 6), at Faverne, then a free town of the Pays de Vaud. He tried in vain to enter the military school of the Prince of Würtemberg at Montbeliard, or the regiment Watteville in France, (the Swiss regiments took their names from the colonels). He entered a commercial establishment in Bâle, and afterwards, in 1796, became a clerk in a broker's house in Paris. He went back to Switzerland in 1799, and took part in the organization of the Swiss army. At the age of twenty-one he was the principal man in the Ministry of War, as well as one of the leaders of the popular party in their struggle against the patrician families of Berne. The reaction of 1801, fatal to the Swiss Unitarians, forced him to return to Paris, and he began there his "Treatise on Great Military Operations." He offered his services and his manuscripts to Gen. Von der Weid, to Murat, to the Russian Ambassador, D'Oubril. Nobody paid any attention to him; but finally Ney took him as honorary aide-de-camp to the camp at Boulogne, where Napoleon was forming the "grande Armée." He remained attached to Ney during the campaign which ended in the capitulation of Ulm. Napoleon read the two volumes of his "Treatise" after Austerlitz and was almost angry. "Don't tell me," said he to Maret (Duc de Bassano), "that the age does not progress; there is a young major, and a Swiss major, who teaches us what my professors did not teach me, and what few generals understand. . . . How could Fouché allow the printing of such a book? Why, this man will let my enemies know all my military system."

Jomini was allowed to make the campaign of 1806 with the general staff, and he entered into personal communications with the Emperor Na-

poleon. He gave many valuable details concerning the Prussian army, and understood at once the combinations which conducted the French army to Jena. These combinations were Napoleon's secret. When Jomini was called to Mayence, at the opening of the campaign, he did not know that he should be asked to remain near the Emperor: he had not brought his horses and his equipage, and he was forced to ask permission to return for a few days to his corps. He said quietly to the Emperor, "I will join you in four days at Bamberg." The Emperor answered with an angry look. "And who told you that I would go to Bamberg?" "The map, Sire." "The map! but there are hundreds of roads in Germany." "Yes, Sire, but there is but one which will conduct your army to the Prussian line of communication, and I am sure your Majesty will take it." Napoleon, confounded by this judgment, said to the young officer, "Well, be in four days at Bamberg, but don't say a word of it to anybody, not even to Berthier, as he does not suspect that I am going to Bamberg." Berthier was the head of the general staff, and Jomini relates this anecdote in order to show that Napoleon concealed his plans from everybody; he gave his instructions to Berthier only for the following day.

Jomini was near the Emperor at Jena, and afterwards at Friedland. He quarrelled with Berthier, and was sent to Glogau, in Silesia, where he published in 1807 his famous chapter on the "Fundamental Principles." He was sent afterwards to Spain, and there fell into disgrace with Ney, who probably was dissatisfied with the Peninsular campaign, and tried to throw the responsibility of his own failure on Jomini's shoulders. Disgusted with the French service, he was thinking of entering the service of Russia (the two empires were then at peace), when Napoleon, hearing of it, sent word to the Duc de Feltre that either Jomini must be imprisoned at Vincennes or accept the grade of brigadier-general. He followed Napoleon to Russia in 1812, but, as the Emperor of Russia had made him very flattering offers, he asked to be made Governor of Wilna, and he only joined the army when it was already in retreat. At the critical moment, he was able to mark the best line of retreat. He almost lost his life in the Beresina, and was several times in great danger in the march from Wilna to Kovno, Danzig, and Stettin. He was so ill on his return that, for three months he was unable to answer the call of Napoleon, who wanted him to help him in the reorganization of the army. He was hardly well when he joined the French troops in Saxony, and on the battle-field of Lützen he was again appointed chief of staff of Marshal Ney, who commanded four corps. He joined him in time to take part in the battle of Bautzen. Ney asked for him the grade of division general, but Berthier refused to give it to him, and even punished him with "les arrêts" for having disobeyed his orders, though this had helped to give the victory to Ney.

Jomini was exasperated this time. He resigned, and as there was for the moment a truce between Napoleon and Alexander, he entered the Russian service. He was violently attacked. Napoleon was very angry at first. He wrote to Cambacérès on August 11, 1813: "Moreau has joined the Russian ranks. Jomini, Chief-of-Staff of the Prince of the Moskva, has deserted. He is the man who has written on war, and he has long been sought after by the Russians. He has yielded to corruption. He is a poor soldier, but a writer who has sound notions on war. He is a Swiss. . . ." At St. Helena Napoleon spoke more calmly of him: "It is wrong to accuse Jomini, as a writer has done, of having carried to the Allies the secret of the operations of the campaign and

the situation [we should now say the *dislocation*] of Ney's corps. This officer did not know the Emperor's plan; the order for a general movement, which was always sent to all the marshals, had not been communicated to him, and if he had known it the Emperor would not accuse him of the crime of treason. He was the victim of a great injustice; he was blinded by an honorable sentiment. He was not French; the love of country could not keep him." The truth probably lies between these two opinions. Jomini was not exactly a mercenary; he joined finally the side where he felt better appreciated. He entered at once on his new functions in a dilettante and cosmopolitan spirit; he did not show an indecent ardor against France, and took no part in the operations of the French campaign of 1814 and 1815. At Vienna in 1815, at Aix-la-Chapelle in 1818, at Verona in 1823, he appeared as military adviser on the staff of Alexander. He afterwards joined the Emperor Nicholas in 1828 in the campaign against Turkey, and his good advice had much to do with the issue of the war.

We need not speak here of his efforts for the reorganization of the military institutions and establishments of Russia. In 1837 he was intrusted with the military education of the son of the Emperor, and on this occasion he wrote his 'Précis de l'art de la guerre,' a dogmatic résumé of his first works. He also wrote several memoirs on the defence of Russia and the 'Military Policy of Russia.' He was favorable to an alliance between France and Russia, seeing in this alliance a safeguard against the naval predominance of England and the Continental supremacy of Germany. Jomini ended his days in Paris on March 28, 1869.

The two volumes now published by Col. Leconte are a masterly account of the Russian invasion. They are perfectly impartial. The faults of Napoleon are indicated, as well as the faults of the Russian generals. The somewhat dry and cold narrative of the strategical movements assumes after a while a dramatic and tragic interest. All the science of Napoleon was baffled by the resolution of the Russian Emperor not to treat with him. In vain did Napoleon sacrifice thousands and thousands of lives, in vain did he outgeneral his adversaries, he could not get the price of his victories, he could not obtain a peace. Russia did not behave as Austria and Prussia had done; the "Grand Army" was engulfed in her solitude and her snow. It is very interesting to see how Jomini, though he is chiefly interested in strategical and tactical efforts, understands what may be called the moral side of war. He renders full justice to the French army, but he also does justice to the heroic character of the Russian soldiers and generals. The scenes of desolation and horror which he describes are all the more powerful in that they are very accurate and technical. The literary man is never felt; the soldier writes, so to speak, with his sword. Jomini proves very clearly that the cold was not the great cause of the French disaster, and he gives as many as fifteen reasons for it. The last might perhaps suffice: "Finally," he says, "the Russian nation distinguished itself by unexpected efforts, and the Emperor Alexander showed a character which nullified all pre-vision."

THE NEW GERMAN ARCHITECTURE.

PRUSSIA, August 25, 1886.

THOSE who remember the Germany of twenty years ago may recall with a little effort the image of the newer streets of that time in the large towns. We refer to a certain well-defined class, not to be found everywhere, for the Germany of the days before 1870 had, to an extraordinary degree, the habit of doing up her old things and

making them as good as new, and there were many cities, not the least known either, where a new house was scarcely to be found. The old gable fronts, disguised by plaster and gray paint, were quite fine enough and new enough for the homely lives that found shelter behind them. Nor do we mean such a royal creation as Munich, where the modern part resembled an atlas of architecture filled with coarse and lifeless reproductions of all the recognized styles; we mean the rows of houses that might be seen anywhere where a prosperous town had naturally spread beyond its ancient borders. We need mention no names; a few words will serve to refresh the memory of whosoever has known the originals.

There were two or three general types determined by local causes. In some places the traditions of good brick building had been more or less preserved; in others, where either ground or money was more abundant than usual, the houses, surrounded by gardens, were of a suburban-villa character; but on the Rhine or on the Spree, on the shores of the Baltic or at the sources of the Danube, there was everywhere to be found a third type, the true representative of domestic architecture in Germany for the greater part of the nineteenth century. The street lines were unbroken by gables, turrets, or steep roofs; the flat brick walls were covered with stucco painted whitish-gray, on which all ornaments were moulded—pilasters, architraves, panels, friezes with masks and garlands. It was the method of the confectioner, who dribbles his meaningless figures over the icing of a cake, and the effect was equally enlivening; the decoration, clumsy and at the same time pinched, gave no variety to the dead uniformity of these fronts. Nothing could be more depressing to the spirits than to have to walk, day after day, between such houses on the one hand, and on the other a gutter where Coleridge might at any time have refound his "two and seventy stenches." There was, to be sure, a grim sort of consolation in knowing that the inside of the houses was even worse for the eye than the outside. There were, very likely, on the walls paintings of the various German schools of the period, and we will not say that they were all bad, but they were invariably surrounded by furniture whose only virtue was that there was seldom much of it; in such as there was, the ugly and the tawdry were so nearly balanced that one could never tell which predominated.

Well, they have bravely changed all that. The traveller who returns to Germany after a long absence finds an endless series of surprises awaiting him. A better system of drainage has banished the smells from many towns of ancient bad odor, and the stranger, whose nose is not outraged, can give himself unreservedly to the pleasures of the eye. He recognizes, with a shudder, some of the old familiar streets, but he also finds that new wealth has created entire new quarters, and that a new spirit has directed their construction. At first glance it might seem as if the recent architecture here were cousin-german to that under the invocation of Queen Anne in England. Both unite brick and stone in their façades, both affect gables and high roofs; but it is soon seen that the relationship goes no further. The demure, slightly old-maidenly graces of the Queen Anne style, with its thin mechanical decoration, would ill serve the impetuosity, the exuberance of the present aesthetic feeling in Germany, which has a sensuous delight in richness, in the display of force, and does not shrink even from the theatrical. The new architecture is in every respect, with a reserve or two to be mentioned hereafter, the exact opposite of that which preceded it. That favored an unbroken sky-line, this lifts into the air contours as varied as those of an Alpine range; that allowed no color save that of dust, this wears motley; that gave you

flat surfaces with projections so insignificant that a strong shadow was never seen, this pushes relief even to exaggeration. We need not say that the gain in character, in richness, in picturesqueness is immense.

The architects of to-day have, almost without exception, taken their motives from the works of the German renaissance. Mr. Fergusson would have had his readers believe that the portico of the town hall at Cologne is the only monument of renaissance art in Germany worth mention. We fancy that Mr. Fergusson was simply repeating here a well-worn trick, and sought to hide his want of knowledge under an air of contemptuous superiority. Had he lived to see the beautiful work of Fritsch ('Denkmäler der deutschen Renaissance'), he might not have liked the architecture of the period, but he would scarcely have ventured to ignore it. In fact, the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries endowed Germany with many buildings that are none the less worth studying because they are utterly unlike anything produced in those centuries in France or Italy. There were points of contact, it is true. That which a Primaticcio built for Francis I., or that which a Giacomo Bolognese built for a Duke of Brunswick, would equally belong to Italian work of the time; but as for the native architects, they seem to have drawn from Italy little more than a renewed impulse and a host of details that they treated after their own fashion. They welded their reminiscences of foreign art with the traditions of their own Gothic, with the requirements of a northern climate and northern ways of living, and, finally, with their own sense of what was fit and seemly. The result was that they transformed renaissance art, as they had Gothic art before it; more so, in fact, as the Gothic had been borrowed from a land where the conditions more nearly resembled their own than did those of Italy. In each case the race character impressed upon the style the same peculiarities: an immense amount of ingenuity in the invention and complication of details, an always limited sentiment of beauty, of grace, and proportion, often giving place to the grotesque, the clumsy, the absurd, but, by way of compensation, a certain raciness and picturesqueness that sometimes lent a distinction even to ugliness.

As a whole, the style was, along with the Romanesque of the Rhine provinces, the best thing that the art of building has ever produced in Germany. Who has not admired, in the old streets of Brunswick, of Hildesheim, of Cologne, of Nuremberg, the noble roofs, the richly sculptured façades, with their gables, their oriels, their pinnacles, their turrets crowned with fantastic belfry like tops, the nameless air of poetic feeling that betrays in their architects the countrymen of the poets who sung the legends of their rivers and forests? The architects of to-day have drawn from the right source, and some of the new streets they have given us may vie with any of the old ones in the play of light and shade, in the variety and vigor of their features, in the wealth and quality of the ornamentation, and in their thoroughly Teutonic character. Their details may have been borrowed from right and left, but they have become acclimated; the whole has nothing of the exotic about it. One sees nowhere any attempt at transplanting a Roman, a Greek, a Byzantine, or a Venetian building; whatever may be their faults, the architects of to-day are at least cured of that folly.

This efflorescence of building simply means that the country, after having for long decades practised perfume a régime of plain living and high thinking, has suddenly begun to grow wealthy. It has got money, and it spends it with the delight in lavishness of a *nouveau riche*. It is amusing, when one recalls the excessive homeliness of the life of these people in the days

before the last war, to see them now in the most dashing equipages, the finest clothes, the most sumptuous houses. It is no longer the American, but the German, who sets the champagne corks a popping at the tables d'hôte on the great lines of travel. The French *milliards*, along with the rapid development of commerce, have affected the Government and the municipalities as well as the people. Court-houses and post-offices, theatres, railway stations, town-halls, all reveal the same relish for splendor that marks the private houses. The architects have been intoxicated by their opportunities. They seem to dream of such impossible architecture as many Italian painters of the last century loved to paint, and to try to realize their dreams when, on waking, they find themselves surrounded by orders to spend money. No wonder that their elevations so often err on the side of richness. One would be puzzled to think of an architectural feature which is not to be found on certain façades. Caryatides, pilasters, columns, panels, pictured friezes, balconies, *loggias*, turrets, oriel, gables, pinnacles, and we know not what beside, are all there. What is more, these details are designed with a vigor and relief that testify as to the force of the artistic impulse. Here, also, there is exaggeration. One sees rusticated basements like those of the Pitti or Strozzi palaces to sustain only a single modest story of thirty feet in length. Still, in general, the bold relief of ornamental details is one of the most pleasing features in the architecture of the present.

In one class of buildings the impulse seems thus far to have secured but insignificant results. We have not seen a single new church that could be called a success. Neither in the Rhineland, where the beautiful Romanesque churches of the eleventh and twelfth centuries offer incomparable models, nor in the north, where the brick architecture of a somewhat later date affords examples of easy adaptation to modern wants, are the new ecclesiastical structures—though in the style natural to each district—other than artless failures. We leave it to others to seek for the causes of this exception; we simply state the fact.

If a public building here do not practically answer the purpose for which it was intended, it is certainly not through want of precautions. The Prussian paternal rule extends its solicitude to many matters that an American would think better left to the care of the parties interested. A large town decides that its growth demands a new general railway station in place of, and at a distance from, existing stations that impede the traffic of its central parts. The plan, which includes a network of new streets, with open places and other embellishments, cannot be acted on till it has been approved by the central Government at Berlin. The same would be true in the case of any public building. The erection of private houses is everywhere in Germany controlled by the municipality, as far as regards certain principles of construction; in some places, at least in the case of streets and sites that figure prominently in the general aspect, the design for every new house must be submitted to the town authorities. We fancy, however, that these content themselves, as a rule, with ascertaining that the proposed building will not be a disgrace to its neighbors. At any rate, the supervision is not of a character to remove the responsibility of the new architecture from the architects and their patrons any more here than in less favored lands.

Perhaps, however, it would be more just to charge the excesses of design which we have signalled against the Teutonic race as a whole than against any individuals in it, for they have distinguished every period of architecture that Germany has ever known, with the single exception of the Romanesque, and even then only in the re-

gions about the Rhine. Everywhere east of that river *tours de force* and over-ingenuity, with bad taste and spoiled Gothic work, were the besetting sins of the renaissance times. Another defect of the present architecture, the pinchbeck character of a good deal of its splendor, is equally to be reproached to the people at large. Many a basement story that looks almost fortress-like in its layers of huge blocks, cut in facets or left rough-hewn, is in reality more ridiculous than terrible—those blocks are only plaster. There are plenty of sculptured columns in artificial stone, many a wall whose mock bricks may peel off in large flakes with the first hard frost. It is not easy to change the Teutonic nature: it loves finery, but it loves it cheap. Now, as always, the *Nachgemacht* is the deadly enemy of beauty here; in fact, the growth of luxury seems to have developed the hideous parasite to proportions unknown before. Never were houses and shops so full of coarse, clumsy, tawdry copies, or, worse yet, downright imitations of every conceivable sort of art industry—sham tapestries, bronzes, Oriental stuffs, and so on. It is evident that the eye of these people never will be so educated that the imitator will not know how to satisfy its demands.

It will readily be inferred that in most of the architecture of which we have written, the greater number of the ornamental details must not be looked at too closely. The builder and the house-owner have both aimed at securing a general effect, and with that they are content. Exceptions in the way of really delicate artistic work may, of course, be found here and there. We noticed over the entrance door of a house at Düsseldorf a head of Mercury in full relief, with a smile that reminded us of a certain lovely group by Carpeaux that adorns the Pavillon de Flore at Paris. It may be doubtful whether such details are strictly architectural or not, but they will hardly hurt a good building, and they make a bad one interesting.

Correspondence.

A GIFT OF DANTE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The late George John, Lord Vernon, whose important contributions to the knowledge of the 'Divine Comedy' are well known to all its students, published in 1858, in large folio volume, a textual reprint of the first four editions of the poem. These editions are of such rarity that it is probable that hardly more than two or three libraries contain them all, and a copy of any one very seldom occurs for sale. To the student of the text of the poem this volume, which was most carefully edited by the late Mr. Panizzi, is of very great value. The four texts, printed side by side, represent four manuscripts, and supply most important material for judgment in regard to the various readings that are found in every canto.

Lord Vernon's last labor in the field to the cultivation of which he had given himself, was the compilation and arrangement of an edition of the 'Inferno,' with elaborate commentary and illustration. It was brought out two or three years after his death by his son, Augustus Henry, Lord Vernon, in three magnificent folio volumes. The copies were very limited in number; they were not offered for sale, but were distributed, by the liberality of Lord Vernon, to public libraries and to a few private persons.

Some copies of both of these works still remain undistributed, and the Dowager Lady Vernon proposes to offer them to the libraries of certain selected public institutions.

The copies of the three volumes of the folio

'Inferno' are in sheets, and, to make vol. iii complete, impressions of some of the plates must be printed.

The conditions on which the copies are offered are, that the recipients in each case shall undertake the expense of binding the sheets, of printing the impressions from the plates necessary to complete vol. iii, and of packing and carriage. "The total expense involved in the above conditions (exclusive of the carriage, which will, of course, vary in each case) is estimated at £2.10 if the four volumes are sent out in sheets, and at £3.10 if they are sent bound in the same manner as those originally distributed by Lord Vernon."

This liberal offer has been or will be made by circular to various public libraries in the United States. It is hardly possible that it should not be gratefully accepted in every case; but as there is a chance that the worth of these books may not be known to the custodians of all the institutions to which the offer may be made, I venture to ask you to allow me, as one who has profited greatly by them, to bear my testimony to their importance to the scholar of Dante, and to express my hope that this opportunity of obtaining works of such essential value may not be lost by any library that is favored with it.—Very truly yours,

CHARLES ELIOT NORTON.

CAMBRIDGE, September 20, 1886.

LAND RECORDS IN INDIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As a member of the Civil Service of India permit me to correct a slight mistake in your review of Dr. Hunter's History of the Indian Empire.

You state (p. 180), "By the English system of legal titles the rights of each cultivator are recorded in a language he does not understand." This is not the case. In districts where Kanarese is spoken the accounts and records are kept in Kanarese; where Marathi is spoken they are kept in that language, and so on. Members of my service are required to be perfectly familiar with the vernacular of their division, in order, primarily, that they may be able to overhaul the accounts and records of the villages in their charge.

As to their being "virtually inaccessible" to the cultivator's inspection (as you say they are, two lines lower down), why, they are as accessible as the British Government can possibly make them—that is, the accountants are compelled to keep them in the "enávdi" (which may be translated very roughly as the *mairie*) of the village, to give each cultivator a detailed account of the rent payable by him to Government long before it is due, and to give him a proper receipt after he has paid it. The cultivator is slow to exercise his rights in many cases; the accountant is almost always a Brahman, and often the only one in the village; and then, too, the cultivators are particularly shy of challenging authorities of any kind. Still, much is being done to alter all this by the system of making European revenue officials examine the accounts and receipt books themselves, and in the presence of the cultivators. Rome was not built in a day, and it should be recollected that the peoples of India have first to be given rights, and then to be educated into appreciating and exercising them.—Respectfully yours,

WALTER F. LORD.

LONDON, September 7, 1886.

THE NO-RENT PANACEA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Seeing that Mr. Henry George's theories in regard to land are liable to receive political endorsement from 30,000 in New York city, and

that these 30,000 people and many thousands more hold the "no-rent" theory to be a panacea for all the ills from which humanity suffers, permit me, through your columns, to call the attention of these "no-rent" and no-private-property theorists to the remarks of a great ante-Christian political philosopher on the same subject:

"Such legislation may have a specious appearance of benevolence. Men readily listen to it, and are easily induced to believe that in some wonderful manner everybody will become everybody's friend, especially when some one is heard denouncing the evils now existing in states—suits about contracts, convictions for perjury, flatteries of rich men, and the like—which are said to arise out of the possession of private property. These evils, however, are due to a very different cause—the wickedness of human nature" (Aristotle's 'Politics,' ii, 5, 11, Jowett's tr., p. 35).

Y.

A NEW WAY TO PAY OLD DEBTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Here is an example of governmental barrenness for the next issue of Mr. McPherson's 'Handbook of Politics,' if he sees proper to make use of it.

During the war the quartermaster at one of the forts on the Canadian frontier bought some iron work from a blacksmith to the amount of \$64, and paid for it with a duly certified voucher, the only means of payment that the Government had at that time. Failing to get the voucher redeemed at the station where issued, the owner in 1837 forwarded it to the Department at Washington. There it lay till the present year, when, being "reached," it was taken up and scaled some twenty per cent., and a warrant issued for the reduced amount, without interest. The payee of the warrant having died many years ago, unhappily in ignorance that the Government was going to pay four-fifths of his account by and by, it became necessary to expend nearly a quarter of the allowance to have an administrator appointed who could endorse the warrant, draw the money, and make distribution among the heirs.

C. F. B.

WASHINGTON, September 17, 1886.

MR. TILDEN'S BEQUEST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The suggestion offered by Mr. Thomas P. Ballard in regard to the Tilden library fund is of great value. At present, and for years to come, scholars who live out of reach of the great libraries must do without most books which their own collections and the libraries at hand fail to furnish. For several reasons (but chiefly for one), it is impossible for individual students and literary men to purchase every book which they desire to consult. And frequently the book is needed for only a few days.

I can think of nothing more to be desired by such workers than the establishment of a library from which, "with proper limitations and credit," books could be sent to them by mail or express for temporary use. It would, in a certain sense, be a circulating library, but different in purpose and patronage from any now in existence.—Yours truly,

E. ALEXANDER.

CHAPEL HILL, N. C., September 13, 1886.

Notes.

THE publishers' fall announcements continue. *Macmillan & Co.*:—Letters and Reminiscences of Thomas Carlyle, by Prof. Charles Eliot Norton; 'Chief Periods of European History,' lectures by Prof. E. A. Freeman; a new and cheaper edition, in four volumes, of Lanfrey's 'Napo-

leon I'; 'Casamassima,' by Henry James; 'Sir Percival,' by J. Henry Shorthouse; 'A Modern Telemachus,' by Miss C. M. Yonge; and the following illustrated works: 'Greenland,' by Baron Nordenskiöld; 'Days with Sir Roger de Coverley,' with designs by Hugh Thomson; an édition de luxe of Irving's 'Old Christmas' and 'Bracebridge Hall,' with the late Randolph Caldecott's designs; and 'Four Winds Farm,' by Mrs. Moleworthy, with designs by Walter Crane.

Lee & Shepard:—Four illustrated works: 'Nature's Hallelujah,' from designs by Irene E. Jerome; Tennyson's 'Dora,' from designs by W. L. Taylor; 'The Three Gems of the Bible,' versified by Prof. W. C. Richards; and 'Plastic Sketches of J. G. and F. F. Low,' an album of Albertype prints of forty-seven bas-relief tiles designed by these well-known manufacturers. *Houghton, Mifflin & Co.*:—'Democracy, and Other Addresses,' by James Russell Lowell; 'The Emancipation of Massachusetts,' by Brooks Adams—emancipation, namely, from the original ecclesiastical and political narrowness; 'Life of William Henry Channing,' by Octavius B. Frothingham; 'Benjamin Franklin,' by J. B. McMaster, in the "American Men of Letters" Series; 'George Washington,' by Henry Cabot Lodge; 'Patrick Henry,' by Moses Coit Tyler; 'Henry Clay,' by Carl Schurz; 'Thomas H. Benton,' by Theodore Roosevelt, and 'Martin Van Buren,' by William Dorsheimer, in the "American Statesmen" Series; 'New York,' by Ellis H. Roberts, in the "American Commonwealths" Series; a 'Memoir of Prof. J. Lewis Diman,' by Caroline Hazard; 'Henry H. Richardson and his Works,' by Mrs. Schuyler van Rensselaer, illustrated with thirty-two full-page views of that architect's principal buildings, and some fifty smaller sketches; 'History of Woodstock, Vermont,' by Henry S. Dana; 'Well-Worn Roads in Spain, Holland, and Italy,' by F. Hopkinson Smith, freely illustrated; 'The Book of the Tile Club,' illustrated with full-page phototypes; 'The Far Interior,' by Malcolm Kerr, who journeyed northward from Cape Town, Africa; 'Ancient Cities, from the Dawn to the Daylight,' by the Rev. Wm. Burnet Wright; 'Orient,' the tenth volume of Joseph Cook's Boston Monday lectures; 'The Silver Bridge, and Other Poems,' by Elizabeth Akers; 'Ariel and Caliban,' poems by Christopher Pearse Cranch; 'The Cruise of the Mystery, and Other Poems,' by Celia Thaxter; 'The Round Year,' poems by Edith M. Thomas; 'Holy Times,' poems by Mrs. A. D. T. Whitney, and 'Seed-Down,' a collection of her short stories; 'The Story of Sordello, told in Prose,' by Annie Hall; 'Roland Blake,' a novel, by S. Weir Mitchell, M.D.; 'A Step Aside,' by Charlotte Dunning; 'In the Clouds,' by Miss Murfree; 'The Madonna of the Tubs,' by Elizabeth Stuart Phelps; 'Thirteen Weeks of Prayers for the Family,' by Benjamin B. Comegys; 'Applied Christianity,' by Washington Gladden; 'Talks about the Law,' by E. P. Dole; 'Ten Dollars Enough,' by Catherine Owen; 'The Works of Edward Fitzgerald'—his translations of the 'Rubáiyát,' the 'Agamemnon,' etc.—edited by M. Kenney; and a large number of new editions, including a cheaper 'Rubáiyát,' with Vedder's designs reduced, and the complete works of Tennyson. *Ginn & Co.*:—'Courses and Methods,' a hand-book for teachers in elementary schools, by John T. Prince. *Thomas Whittaker*:—'Religion: a Revelation and a Rule of Life,' discourses and essays by the Rev. Wm. Kirkus.

Goldsmith's "She Stoops to Conquer," with an introduction by Austin Dobson, and with the illustrations by Mr. E. A. Abbey, of which the public have had a foretaste in *Harper's Monthly*; and 'Home Fairies and Heart Flowers,' poems by Mrs. Margaret E. Sangster, embellished by twenty engravings of children's heads, executed by Mr. Frank French, and partly known admir-

ingly to the readers of *Harper's Young People*—will be published directly by Harper & Bros.

D. Lothrop & Co. announce 'For a Girl's Room'; 'The Story-book of Science,' by Lydia Hoyt Farmer; and 'How to Cook Well,' by Mrs. J. R. Benton.

A complete collection of the poetical works of Benjamin F. Taylor, prepared by himself, with a portrait, will be published next month by S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago.

Mr. George J. Coombes will shortly publish a new anonymous novel, 'Roger Camerden, a Strange Story.' He will also hereafter be the New York publisher of Mr. Wheatley's "Book-Lover's Library." The second volume to appear is 'Old Cookery Books and Ancient Cuisine,' by Mr. W. Carew Hazlitt. Here is a fine opportunity to apply the dictum that the book would have been better if the author had taken more pains. But at this late date it is hopeless to expect that Mr. Hazlitt will be anything but careless and inconsequent. In the present case he has chosen a most interesting subject, and he has collected many interesting details, anecdotes, and quotations. It is pleasant to learn how *To make a Ragoo of Pigs-Ears*, and how *To make a Spread-Eagle Pudding*; and it is delightful to be told that Mrs. Hannah Glasse's 'Art of Cookery,' published in 1747, does not contain the famous direction, "First catch your hare," by which alone it is now snatched back from oblivion. These are but brief samples of the store of strange learning in the records of cookery to be found in Mr. Hazlitt's little volume, which is provided with an index.

'The Merry Men, and Other Fables,' is the title of the collection of short stories which Mr. Robert Louis Stevenson is preparing for publication late in the fall, and which will be issued in this country by Charles Scribner's Sons. Mr. Stevenson is engaged on a sequel to 'Kidnapped,' and he has also agreed to write the life of the Duke of Wellington for Mr. Andrew Lang's series of "English Worthies."

Mr. Percy Fitzgerald, a most industrious book-maker, with a sharp eye on the topic of the hour, testifies to the increasing interest of the public in books as books by preparing 'The Book-Fancier'; or, *The Romance of Book-Collecting*.

Mr. J. Ashby-Sterry, the author of 'Boudoir Ballads,' has collected the 'Lays of a Lazy Minstrel,' which he has been contributing to *Punch*. They will be published in London by T. Fisher Unwin; and in New York, Scribner & Welford will include them in their pretty "Ideal Series," in which the poems of Mr. Locker, Mr. Austin Dobson, and Mr. Lang already appear.

Mr. George Redway of London is about to publish, in a limited edition of 500 copies, a collection of the odds and ends of Thackeray's writing, not included even in the latest two volumes of the authorized editions of the novelist's works. The book will be called 'Sultan Stork, and Other Stories, Sketches, and Ballads.' There are ten bits of prose written between 1833 and 1844, and three bits of verse. The book will also contain an enlarged revision of the 'Bibliography of Thackeray' published a few years ago; and as this was prepared by Mr. R. H. Shepherd, a well-known literary resurrectionist, it is perhaps not unfair to conjecture that he is the editor of the book.

At last we have from Houghton, Mifflin & Co. the beginnings of the complete Longfellow, in prose and verse. This edition may well be thought final, the scheme of arrangement and annotation being commendable and the mechanical execution suitable to the author's rank and the reputation of the publishers. The duodecimo form chosen is for the hand, as the size of type is for the eye; the binding, a dark green cloth, is elegantly simple. The first volume contains

'Outre-Mer' and 'Drift-Wood'; the second, 'Hyperion' and 'Kavanagh.' Everything is told that need be (especially since the poet's Life has appeared) of the conception and chronologic progression and publication of these prose works. In the case of the poems, which are to follow, the earliest and the latest readings will be compared in footnotes. The translations will be grouped together, but otherwise the poet's preferred order (which was not that of composition) will be observed. It has "been decided to print, in the appendices of certain volumes, discarded work which was contemporaneous with the contents of those volumes" (*e. g.*, in vol. I. "The Blank Book of a Country Schoolmaster," which was contributed to the *Knickerbocker* two years after "The Schoolmaster"—the forerunner and quarry of 'Outre-Mer'—had appeared in the *New England Magazine*). Finally, a complete bibliography will be attempted, within the limits of the possible. Or not finally, since we must speak of the portrait in vol. I, a steel-plate engraving after a painting of the Bowdoin professor—a most characteristic likeness. We presume there will be others.

The nineteenth number of the Riverside Literature Series (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) contains the first portion of Franklin's 'Autobiography,' expurgated, and very properly, since this series is intended as an aid to literary study in schools.

Scott's 'Lay of the Last Minstrel,' edited for the Clarendon Press Series by Prof. W. Minto, with very copious notes, a map of Scotland, etc.; and Byron's 'Childe Harold,' edited by W. J. Rolfe, with good and pertinent illustrations (Boston: Ticknor & Co.), will recommend themselves to teachers. From Macmillan & Co. we have also a handy and clearly printed little volume of 'Selections from Schiller's Lyrical Poems,' edited by E. J. Turner and E. D. A. Morshead. It contains "Die Schlacht," "Der Ring des Polykrates," "Die Kraniche des Ibykus," "Der Handschuh," "Das Lied von der Glocke," "Der Pilgrim," "Der Taucher," and many another favorite of the shorter poems.

Roberts Bros., Boston, add to their uniform series of George Meredith's works his 'Sandra Belloni,' which still retains in its running title the original name given to this novel, 'Emilia in England.'

Mr. Brooks's "Olden-Time Series" is continued in a fifth volume by 'Some Strange and Curious Punishments' (Boston: Ticknor & Co.). While it does not contain much that is unfamiliar, it will interest the curious. Thus, the first instance is given of the burning in 1695 of an American book, which a Salem Quaker bookseller was guilty of publishing, and which bore the title, 'Truth Held Forth and Maintained.' Again: "On the 15th of January, 1801, one Hawkins stood an hour in the pillory in Court St., . . . Salem, and had his ear cropped for the crime of forgery, pursuant to the sentence of the Supreme Court." Here it is the date which surprises us. Mr. Brooks produces some instances, not much more ancient, of flogging, to show how much less this was dreaded than confinement with hard labor, and to offset the present demand in some quarters for a revival of the whipping-post. Long after slavery was judicially abolished in Massachusetts, criminals were sold by the courts for a limited term of years. The imprisonment of Prudence Crandall for teaching colored girls in Connecticut is noted. The only instance cited of burning a negro alive is one that occurred in Georgia in 1820. This is both near-fetched (in time) and far-fetched (in space). Paige's 'History of Cambridge (Mass.)' would have furnished Mr. Brooks with a case in that town in 1755. In fact, there was hardly any slave State, North or South, that did not exhibit this form of savagery in the genera-

ration that revolted against the "tyranny" of the mother country.

Two of the latest American books published in Paris are Mr. Carnegie's 'Triomphe de la Démocratie, ou l'Amérique depuis cinquante ans,' and Mr. Marion Crawford's 'Le Chanteur Romain,' issued with a preface by M. Henri Lavoix—a curious coincidence of name.

It is pleasant news that the Librairie des Bibliophiles is preparing for its excellent "Nouvelle Bibliothèque Classique" a selection from Voltaire, to be contained in about twelve volumes. It will be edited by Bengesco, author of a Voltaire bibliography.

A late addition to the collection of "Classiques Populaires" (Paris: Lecène & Oudin: Boston: Schoenhof) is 'Fénelon éducateur,' by M. Gaston Bizo. Like the other works of the series, this is a very elementary exposition of the author studied. The 'Télémaque' is analyzed, and numerous extracts are given from it, as well as several of the Fables and Dialogues of the Dead written by Fénelon for the young Duke of Burgundy, grandson of Louis XIV. The other works written by him for his royal pupil at a later age are carefully summarized. The book opens with an interesting account of the now wholly antiquated and unsatisfactory 'Traité de l'éducation des filles.' But if Fénelon did not claim more for the education of women, the fault is rather to be laid to his time than to himself. It was not many years before this that Mlle. de Scudéry had written: "A woman who can dance with propriety only during a few years of her life, spends ten or twelve in learning constantly what she is to do only during five or six: . . . but she is obliged to speak until her last breath, and yet she is taught nothing which can make her speak more agreeably." The volume is illustrated with ten reproductions of old pictures, very appropriately selected, but printed from worn-out plates.

The annual report of the President of Brown University is noteworthy as recommending an experimental provision for the education of young women at that institution. His plan is to give them the same instruction as their brothers receive, but separately for the first year, owing to the want of adequate Freshman recitation-rooms.

Teachers and others will be interested in a long article on the higher education in the United States, by Prof. Eugène Stropeno, in the *Révue Internationale de l'Enseignement* for August 15 (Paris: Armand Colin et Cie.). It is based on the Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1883-84. The reviewer has a sly remark on the worldly reasons (among others) furnished by the Rev. Carroll Cutler, D.D., President of Adelbert College, for overriding the vote of the Faculty for the future exclusion of women. "Ce mélange de sentiments élevés et de préoccupations temporelles a une saveur spéciale et tout américaine," he says. But he might have made a very different remark had he known the early opposition of the clergy in this country to the equality of the sexes in intellectual training and pursuits. Touching on the debate over the elective system, the Professor is disposed to side with Drs. McCosh and Porter against President Eliot, saying that Dr. Porter's arguments seem to him to rock that system seriously. Meanwhile, however, President Porter has abandoned his post of resistance, while President Eliot tranquilly maintains his seat and his course.

The most striking contribution to the (Syracuse) *Academy* for September is a letter from a well-known classical instructor, Mr. W. C. Collar, to Prof. Lane of Harvard, on College Entrance Examinations. It is a plea for greater latitude in preparatory instruction in Latin, both in the interest of good teaching and of the mental

freshness of the preceptors. "The reading of the first four books of the *Gallic War* and the *Orations against Catiline* with twenty or thirty successive classes has not proved exhilarating to any classical teacher of my acquaintance." And again: "It is said, I don't know with how much truth, that a very large proportion of teachers fitting boys for college read little, if any, Latin and Greek beyond what they are required to teach." There can be no doubt of this, in our opinion, since all motive is lacking for a different practice. Mr. Collar wisely concludes that "when any portion of an author has been required for three or four successive years, it should be dropped, and not restored until after an interval of several years."

As we called attention to an introductory article on the French language in Canada by Prof. A. M. Elliott, in the *American Journal of Philology*, we must mention a second in No. 26 of the same periodical, on "Speech-Mixture in French Canada: External Influence." It is virtually a review of Canadian colonization and history before the final domination of the English. In a footnote the opinion is advanced that the Acadian French, the original sources of which were the *Langue d'Oc* dialects, is not so strongly separated from the current Canadian idiom as to be deemed an independent order of linguistic growth. Prof. Elliott promises to show hereafter that both the phonetics and morphology are nearer the model of the North French than the language of the Province of Quebec, whose sources were nevertheless in the *Langue d'Oil* dialects.

The Report of the Council of the American Antiquarian Society, printed in the *Proceedings* (vol. iv, part 2) derives its permanent value from its historical illustration of the thesis that "both Pilgrims and Puritans supported their ministers by voluntary contributions for several years after coming to America." In Boston this plan of maintenance "was never given up, and has been in use during the entire period covered by its history."

An interesting conspectus of buildings designed by the late H. H. Richardson is given on several sheets in the *American Architect* for September 11. A novel and effective "heliochrome" process is used to represent a block of stores by the same architect in Boston.

Though the question of the destruction of the Charterhouse has been temporarily settled in the negative, the *Magazine of Art* for October does well to continue its articles on that precious London landmark. An article on Paul Baudry is illustrated by a spirited bust of the dead painter, after Paul Dubois, and by several unfamiliar specimens of his work, including his portrait of About.

M. Paul Leroy has the floor in *L'Art* for August 15 (Macmillan), concluding his discourse on the Salon of 1886. Some strong charcoal life studies by Mlle. Camille Claudel, and a bas-relief profile of the younger Dumas, are among the more striking accompaniments of the text.

A bibliographical account of Bewick's 'History of Quadrupeds' is given in *Book-Lore* for September (New York: David G. Francis).

Daudet's 'Siege of Berlin,' in German; Julius Stinde's 'Die Dumme Frau'; Heyse's 'Die Reise nach dem Glück'; and Jensen's 'Der Wille des Herzens,' are among the short stories in Nos. 14-16 of the "Collection Schick" (Chicago). The same publisher has started a "Humoristische Bibliothek," with illustrations, including selections from Gerstäcker, Brentano, Stinde ('Die Familie Buchholz'), the comic poets, etc.

'Das Jahr 1885'—the nineteenth year of Prof. Wilhelm Müller's 'Politische Geschichte der Gegenwart' (Berlin, 1886)—forms the smallest volume in the collection, excepting the three pub-

lished before the war of 1870. It is especially small compared with its next predecessor, and chiefly meagre on foreign (that is, non-German) events. Yet it finds room not only duly to record the entrance of President Cleveland into the White House and the formation of his Cabinet, as well as the deaths of Generals Grant and McClellan and of Vice-President Hendricks, but also for reflections on the careers of the two generals. Referring to McClellan, the story is told that Fieldmarshal Moltke, having listened to the remark of an American that the Union commander in the "Seven Days' Battle before Richmond" was less highly esteemed as a strategist in his country than some other generals, said: "That may be so, but allow me to observe that if your Government had supported that general as it ought to have done, your war would have come to a close two years earlier." Of this saying both the authenticity and correctness may be doubted. Müller has eighteen pages on the Balkan Peninsula, and the chances are that he will have twice as many in the volume on 1886.

A less valuable, though far from useless, record of the events of 1885 is the first "Jahrgang" of "Der Chronist," edited by Dr. Karl Siegen as "a running alphabetical supplement to every Conversations-Lexicon," and issued in quarterly parts (Leipzig). It, too, has obituary notices of Gen. Grant ("born at Mount Peasant"), Gen. McClellan (under "Clellan"), and Hendricks (of Indiana), but it has no reference in the proper place to President Cleveland, and the reader must find out by dint of search that it is not under "Vereinigte Staaten," but under "Nordamerika," that he has to look for events in the United States. Neither Milan of Servia nor Alexander of Bulgaria is separately referred to, and the Serbo-Bulgarian war is spoken of only under "Bulgarien." The literary notices, however, are very numerous—Lindau, for instance, figuring in three quarterly parts.

Volume 14 of "Brockhaus's Conversations-Lexikon" (New York: L. W. Schmidt) brings this work to *Spahis*, the principal articles being on Russia, Saxony, Schleswig-Holstein, Servia (to the treaty of March 3, 1886), Shakspere, Sweden, and Switzerland. There is an interesting historical map, so colored as to show the growth of the Russian Empire since the accession of Peter the Great in 1689. From this it appears that the period when the acquisitions have been greatest was that of the reigns of Catharine II. and Paul, 1762-1801, and least during the reign of Nicholas, 1825-1855. The other especially noteworthy maps are of the western Russian provinces, Prussian Silesia, Norway and Sweden, and Saxony and the Thuringian States. In the statistics of population given in the article on Switzerland, the number of expatriated Swiss who are living in America is given as 107,780 out of a total of 234,045, against only 66,281 in France. The opening number of the new volume is largely devoted to Spain, the history being brought down to the birth of the King in May of this year. Among American celebrities, Gens. Sheridan and Sherman receive fair and appreciative notices. The American portion of the article on Slavery is not written with a full intelligence of the growth of the Slave Power or of the opposition to it. Two more volumes will complete the work.

The *École Libre des Sciences Politiques* has commenced, the present year, the publication of a *Recueil Trimestriel*, entitled *Annales de l'École*, etc., under the editorship of M. Émile Boutmy, Director of the School, and others. The articles do not appear to be confined to the regular work of the School, but to be contributed also by former students and others. The third number, for July 15, contains five articles: (1.) France in the Orient at the Commencement of the Eighteenth Century, by Albert Vandal; the dip-

lomatic relations of France with Turkey in modern history are explained in a striking manner. (2.) The Separation of the Administrative and Judicial Powers in Belgium, by Jean Romieu—a subject illustrating some of the most interesting portions of Mr. Dicey's lectures on the law of the Constitution. (3.) Bibliography of the Finances in the Eighteenth Century, by René Stourm. (4.) The French Policy at the Congress of Rastadt, by Raymond Koechlin; this is the second paper, and a third is to be printed in the fall. (5.) The Land-tax in Belgium and Holland, by Marcel Trelat. This number also contains a summary of the year's work. There are three "groups"—History and Diplomacy (Albert Sorel, President); Political Economy and Finances (Léon Say, President); Public and Private Law (Alexandre Ribot, President). In what relation these "groups" stand to the "sections" (Administrative, Diplomatic, Economical and Financial, General—to which a Colonial is to be added), we cannot make out. The examinations of the School took place June 15 to 26; of thirty-five candidates twenty-four obtained diplomas, seven of them with distinction.

It is curious to find animal spirits the *raison d'être* of a literary immortality, but this is certainly the case in the resuscitation of Christopher North. The tribute to him (one can hardly call it criticism) in the current *Atlantic* suffers greatly by comparison with Mr. George Saintsbury's late article, which was an admirable study, and, in a sympathetic way, said the last light word about the heavy slugger of the Reviewers. The *Atlantic* writer takes the physical prowess of his hero too seriously, almost as a literary instead of a merely personal quality. It is true he belonged to what seems a prehistoric age of criticism, when the giants of literary Edinburgh "tare each other in the slime" if they chanced to meet; but wrestling and pedestrianism and unlimited punch, the brawn and the stomach, were but a part of Christopher, as of other men. The literary analyst must take other than gymnastic measurements, and Mr. Saintsbury will show how the thing is done, if any literary student desires to learn, and at the same time would appreciate a man whose remains are too vast to be more than scanned. The remainder of the number is enlivened somewhat by a folk-lore sketch of Venetian witches, interesting for the mildness and rationality of the Venetian temperament in religious polity, which it illustrates; and Prof. Shaler contributes an inquiry, of a scientific cast, in respect to the probability of a permanent instinctive race-hatred being developed in the Southern social system, in the course of which he treats the negro and slavery from other than the humanitarian point of view, with unusual liberty. The doctrine of Divine Right, as one might call it, in the negro's status seems to yield wholly, in his mind, to considerations of simple state policy.

The bi-centennial celebration at Woodstock was very noteworthy as the first bi-centennial of Northeastern Connecticut, and from some especially characteristic of the town. An offshoot from Old Roxbury, Mass., fostered by the Apostle Eliot, bringing with it into the Nipmuck wilderness the strictest Puritanic ideas and traditions, with little influence from without to check their development, it furnishes a rare specimen of the genuine New England township. Mr. Clarence Bowen's address ("Woodstock: an Historical Sketch," Putnam's) gives a very comprehensive summary of the settlement and growth of the town, from the first "notable meeting," two hundred years ago, when some forty Roxbury emigrants drew lots on Plaine Hill for their respective homesteads—"every man being satisfied and contented with God's disposing"—to modern

meetings more widely known and not less memorable. The spirit of local independence inherited from Anglo-Saxon ancestry has been conspicuously manifested throughout the town's history. When forbidden by the General Court of Massachusetts to levy a meeting-house tax upon non-resident land-holders, it refrained from sending a representative. It revolted from the jurisdiction of Massachusetts to that of Connecticut, and then fought to the death in defence of Cambridge Platform. It gave Commodore Morris to the Navy; Generals Eaton, McClellan, and Lyon to the Army; William L. Marcy to the Cabinet; the descendants of Jedidiah Morse and Abiel Holmes to the world. Mr. Bowen's spirited sketch gives an outline of the most prominent events, and will be followed in a few months by a comprehensive town history.

Though Instinct is a great matter, it is allowed only one and a half pages in the seventh volume of the magnificent Index Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office (Washington). The special form of the primal curse of the human race, Labor, on the other hand, fills 150. The Intestines come next, with 62 pages; then the Larynx, 52, the Kidneys, 44, the Jaws, 42, the Knee, 32, the Joints, 22, the Leg, 13, the Jaundice, 11, the Iris, 8. Lead-poisoning has a little library of 9 pages. Of remedies, Iodine and Iron occupy 6 and 7 pages respectively; Instruments, 8. Jurisprudence (medical) has a literature indexed in 24 pages. A mere list of periodicals called "Journal" requires 9 pages; but a far more impressive testimony to the enormous scope of Dr. Billings's *magnum opus* is the 100 pages of titles of periodicals referred to in the first seven volumes of this Catalogue, with their abbreviations, reprinted for convenience of reference. The volume ends with Leghorn; and, by the way, there is no little interest in the geographical classifications—of countries, like Ireland, Italy, Japan; or of towns and cities. More intimate study will repay the bibliophile. One might go far to see, though we do not know that it is a rare book, Dr. Edward Jenner's "An Inquiry into the Causes and Effects of the Variola Vaccine," a disease discovered in some of the western counties of England, particularly Gloucestershire, and known by the name of the Cow-Pox" (iv, 75 pp., 4 pl. 4to. London, S. Low, 1798). Jenner's portrait was inserted in the third edition in 1801. A German translation was promptly published at Hanover in 1799, a Latin at Vienna in the same year, a French at Lyons in 1800, a Portuguese at Lisbon in 1803, an Italian at Modena in 1853. Keats, in his medical capacity, is entered by way of two magazine articles. In general, the biographical features of this Catalogue are of great value, and more pains than can be appreciated have been taken to give the dates of the physicians recorded.

In a "Plan for the extension of astronomical research" (privately printed), Professor Pickering of the Harvard Observatory calls attention to the waste arising from the expenditure of money in astronomical observatories and instruments which there is no way of making good use of. Donations for the promotion of science are generally made by men not well acquainted with the nature of scientific research. Their ideal astronomer is a keen-eyed man, looking at the heavenly bodies through a big telescope to see what new thing he can discover. From such a point of view, the largest possible telescope is naturally regarded as the only important requirement of an institution for astronomical re-

search, and thus we have countless telescopes scattered over the country, few of which are in regular use, and still fewer employed in work which is likely to be published. In order that an instrument may serve a really useful scientific purpose, there must be a trained man whose principal business it shall be to use the instrument, and who shall have the aid of one or more assistants, together with the means of publishing his observations. Perhaps we might add that he should also have some incentive for doing good work; but this is a requirement which a donor of money would necessarily leave to his trustees. Professor Pickering points out to the patrons of astronomical science that their objects can best be attained, not by founding new institutions or purchasing new instruments, but by giving existing institutions the means of utilizing the appliances they already possess. For example, the observatory of Harvard College has an ample outfit both in the way of instruments and observers, but is much cramped by the want of an income to meet the current expenses of its work. A few years ago a subscription of \$5,000 a year was secured for the term of five years, and the results obtained, as seen in the published volumes of the annals, far exceeded any that could have been realized by expending the same amount in founding a new institution or presenting new instruments. Finally, lest donors might fear that in taking such a step as he proposes they would merely be supporting the Harvard Observatory, Professor Pickering shows that if the patron has any special investigation in view, there will be no difficulty in having the proceeds of his donation devoted entirely to it.

The curious earthquake theories that spring up just now in the newspapers must be taken as indirect effects of the Carolina disturbance, along with the sand and clay eruptions in the shaken district. The latter, which the reporters delight to call "geysers" and "volcanic phenomena," seem to be very generally misapprehended. They are, in the first place, not at all uncommon in violent earthquakes, and have been described in detail in Austria and India. Oldham's account of the Cachar earthquake, published in the memoirs of the Indian Geological Survey, is of particular interest at present by reason of the excellent photographs that it gives of these pseudo-eruptions. Further, they are in no way volcanic, being of shallow origin and of low temperature; they do not depend on the movement of molten rock, or on the expansive force of hot steam, but on the incompressibility and mobility of cold water. They are, without doubt, produced by the bursting out of water from saturated layers of sand or clay a little below the surface, at the moments when the passing earth-waves exert a compressive force. They are therefore not to be regarded as at all indicative of the cause of an earthquake, which is deep seated; they are not even the immediate effects of the initial disturbance; they should be recognized, together with shaking houses and tumbling walls, as effects of the earth-waves that travel radially away from the subterranean source of the earthquake, and therefore as only secondary effects of the first cause.

The newspapers, as a rule, seem to feel no responsibility for the nonsensical theories that they publish. It is sufficient if a correspondent, whose mental furnishings are in unstable equilibrium, has an untested hypothesis dislodged from his brain by the news of the earthquake: it is printed, and serves as material for public edification, even though resounding from beginning to end with ignorance, inconsequence, and absurdity. The New York *Tribune* one day gives space to a letter suggesting that the Carolina earthquake was generated beneath Vesuvius, then carried

under the ocean by a passage that brings away from the Mediterranean the surplus of its inflow from the Atlantic, and thus led into the Gulf Stream, which discharged the shock on Charleston and its vicinity; and the next day opens its columns to a correspondent who thinks the shock was dispersed as an electric wave, and quotes vague evidence from "a gentleman who has resided much in South America." The Philadelphia *American* knows of no use for the time-records of the shock, and editorially likens them to "material for a sort of scientific coroner's inquest." It thinks the altogether questionable "shower of pebbles" reported in Charleston a "most significant fact," which, taken in connection with the "geysers," points to a volcanic origin of the earthquake. The Philadelphia *Inquirer* prints several long letters from a modern martyr, who anticipates the neglect with which a sceptical world may treat his hypothesis connecting earthquakes and the attitude of the planets, by pointing out that Kepler, Galileo, and Newton also had a hard time of it to convince their incredulous hearers of laws that have since given them a very good reputation. Such reading tempts one to wonder what are the duties of a newspaper editor.

A PUBLIC DOCUMENT ON ART.

Industrial and High Art Education in the United States. By I. Edwards Clarke, A.M. Part I, Drawing in Public Schools. Washington: Government Printing Office. [Bureau of Education.]

THE only form of intellectual activity produced by the attempt to wade through the morass of incompetent conclusions and ill-selected quotations contained in this fearful volume of 842 pages, printed at the expense of the people of the United States, is that of resentment. If there was planned a Part II, on some higher development in art education, it is patriotic to hope that something may interfere with any further such absolute waste of paper and printing. Page after page of the most commonplace and trite dissertation on art is followed by a mass of quotations from all kinds of writers on art, of whom the compiler was evidently unable to measure the relative authority. Mixed with all this are puffs of art manufacturers, and absurd and unmerited eulogiums of the author's laborers.

An introduction of 28 pages furnishes, if one only knew how to find it, the supposed plan of the report; and, as nearly as we can judge, it is contained in the following passage:

"The subject naturally separates into two main divisions: on the one hand, that embracing all matters relating to the technical industrial producing arts and artistic industries; on the other those relating mostly to the Fine Arts; this last division properly includes three distinct subdivisions, relating, separately, to the theory and history, to the study and practice, and to the enjoyment and patronage of art. The first of these minor divisions includes such a knowledge of the historical development of art as must hereafter be implied in the term 'liberal education,' such as, within the past few years, has been taught in some of the classical colleges and universities; the second includes the special art schools, and academies for the technical training of artists—architects, sculptors, painters, and engravers, preparatory to the actual production of works of high art; the third comprises the various means for promoting that general information and art culture of the public which is derived largely from the opportunities of seeing choice works of art, in the collections of art museums and art loan exhibitions; the latter having perhaps as important, if not as manifest, an influence upon the development of the industries and arts of a people as the former, for the industries and arts of a people are determined by their needs, their desires, and their intelligence."

"So long as individuals and communities have never seen the added attractions given to buildings, furniture, clothing, and household imple-

ments by the application of art to such articles of prime necessity, so long there is no demand for the production of similar artistic articles; but let once their eyes be opened by a sight of the wonders of a 'world's fair,' or an 'art-loan collection,' and immediately the demand is created. There is at first no ability, owing to lack of knowledge and skill on the part of the home workmen, to produce similar articles, consequently this demand must be met by importation. An increase of imports, with no corresponding increase of exports, is an evident disadvantage for the importing country. It is therefore of importance to any community or country to ascertain by what methods other countries have trained skilled artists and artificers, in order to adopt similar means; hence, an account of the experiments, expenditures, and systems adopted by foreign countries for these purposes is directly demanded in such a report as this."

Platitudes of this kind innumerable may be found in corners of country papers and in sophomorical essays *passim*, but probably in no enlightened country except our own has it ever been thought worth while to collect them for official publication.

A chapter is devoted to crude speculation on "the Democracy of Art"; an adulatory address to Demos assuring him that he is the true and fitting patron of art, witness Athens in the age of Phidias—in sublime ignorance of the fact that the Athens of Phidias was the work of an intelligent despot, and that the people had no more part in it than they had in the Florence of the Medici. The only thing the people did for Phidias was to throw him into prison (where he died), on various charges, of which we know that one of the chief—that of putting his portrait into the ornaments of the Athena—proved clearly enough that it was not the artistic but the theological side of his work which filled the popular mind. The Demos will be a patron of high and true art when it is a friend of high morals and true philosophy; when the workmen will gather after their work and discuss Plato and the 'Novum Organum,' read Dante in the original, and be able to controvert the fallacies in Ruskin's 'Modern Painters'—in other words, when it is educated to the point which individuals must reach in order to become intelligent patrons and students of art. The "Democracy of Art" is a thing which may be in the far-distant future, but never has been except in the fables of history; and as education in art is the most backward and the most difficult of all forms of education, it will be the last to which any people will attain. Individuals, and possibly races, of extraordinary gifts and a narrow and special education may be brought to the production of special forms of art in high perfection, but this does not imply, and is rarely accompanied by, that general education in art which is aimed at in modern schemes of official activity. The art education of a people has never gone further than dress and the simpler forms of technical decoration; for anything beyond, and the forms of ideal art, we have always been dependent on the select few—an aristocracy of birth, education, or wealth, or all three combined.

Even in abstract conceptions of art our reporter has no preparation for his undertaking. What can one say to this as philosophy?

"Man may be defined as a thinking, talking, and constructing animal. That other animals may partake in some degree of this faculty of thought, which was long denied, is becoming somewhat generally admitted since the evidence has accumulated of actions by animals—as the horse, the dog, the elephant—apparently based upon memory, and the results of cogitation upon former experiences. Nevertheless, not even the most enthusiastic evolutionist will deny that as yet the development of man, as a creature capable of ratiocination, is far in advance of that of all other beings known to the naturalist."

"In articulate speech, with all that it implies, man stands confessedly superior. Although he shares the constructive faculty with insects, the bee, the wasp, the ant, as well as with some of

the animals, as the beaver, and with the birds as a class, and although some of each of these classes of animated beings, by the exquisite perfection of their constructions, challenge the superiority of human skill, yet in the versatility of his wide-embracing powers man still holds the place accorded to him in that sublime history of the creation recorded in Genesis, as the ruler and governor of all created beings.

"It is, however, in his capacity for Art that man is most completely differentiated from the rest of the animated creation."

The author might have added that man is also distinguished in his capacity for art by standing erect, and therefore being able to work at the easel.

"It is, of course, only of works of art which claim to belong to High Art that these words are written. In the realm of Decorative Art other laws have rule; for the decorative artist has no special message of his own to deliver. His art is an end in itself. Its results are attained by the use of pleasing forms and harmonies of color. Its purpose is to add to the sum of human happiness by thus producing pleasurable sensations. It is a charming and delightful phase of art akin to the dance and the song, in which rhythmic harmonies appeal to eye and ear. It is not of that high order of inspiration of which we have been speaking."

This is another of the clap-trap pseudo-truisms which are continually being asserted by the would-be philosophers of art, and which make their education hopeless. There are really two forms of pictorial delineation or representation to the eye, by any technical means, of natural objects or conceptions: one is decorative and the other is scientific. The latter may be drawing or painting or sculpture, but it is not Art. There is no distinction whatever between Decorative Art and what is known as "High Art," but which is really *high* just in proportion as it is *pure* art. The frescoes of the Sistine Chapel are simply its decorations: the pediments of the Parthenon were no more—if bad art; they might have been less.

A great part of the volume before us is devoted to the eulogy of Walter Smith, of South Kensington, late State Director of the Massachusetts Art Schools, and author of the introduction to the educational system of the United States of the worst recorded method of teaching art, or even drawing, which the world has yet developed—a method born of ignorance, and carried out in misapprehension of the lowest as well as the highest qualities of true art; wrong in its methods and mistaken in its ends. That Prof. Smith should be the model of the reporter's commendations, and his glorification the drift of the report, is the best evidence that could be given of his incompetence to undertake a work which must stand as the highest official expression of American knowledge of art, and go abroad as such. An author printing his ideas at his own cost and risk has a claim to the charity of silence we may afford to the ignorant; but the fashion, if it is to be one, of flooding the country with unintelligent lucubrations like these, at public expense and with the official stamp, cannot be too soon or too severely visited with the reprobation it deserves. And all the more earnestly are those to be protested against that enter a province in which popular education is still to be begun, and where so much depends on the eminent fitness of the reporter, not to collect facts and statistics, but to express opinions. The English Government, with its superior advantages, has never done anything but muddle in art education; and ours, with its standards of ethics or aesthetics, cannot do better than let art education alone. If a demonstration of this is wanted, a brief examination of this volume will furnish it. We protest in advance against the second volume and all after. If our Government wants to know what the best system of art education is, let it delegate some compe-

tent person to visit the various schools of art in the Old World, and describe with a comprehensive and useful precision the methods followed and the relative results obtained in them. Having published the result of this commission, let Congress solemnly bind itself never to appropriate a dollar to the patronage of art under any pretext whatever.

THE MELANESIAN LANGUAGES.

The Melanesian Languages. By R. H. Codrington, D.D., of the Melanesian Mission, Fellow of Wadham College, Oxford. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. \$vo, pp. viii, 572.

SOMETHING more than thirty years ago a young man of New York city, who had employed most of his spare time since his graduation, some eight or nine years previously, in the study of comparative philology and general linguistics, came to the conclusion that, in order to solve certain problems which had presented themselves to his mind in the course of his studies, it would be necessary to investigate some of the languages of barbarous peoples who had no written literature of their own. The only practicable method of doing this was through the works of missionaries, more especially the translations of portions of the Scriptures published by Bible and missionary societies. He accordingly called at the office of the book department of the American Bible Society, stated his object to the gentleman in charge, and offered to pay any price that gentleman might deem reasonable for copies of books published by the Society, in languages which had been first reduced to writing by missionaries for the instruction and conversion of the barbarians to whom they had been sent. The gentleman of the Bible-house raised various objections to the young man's request, and finally closed the conversation by saying with some asperity, "Well, you must understand that the object of this Society is to propagate the Gospel, and not to assist philological students," and turning away to attend to other matters. The young man then determined to attempt to procure the books he wanted, through an English agent, from the British and Foreign Bible Society; but he found, on inquiry, that such an attempt would be as fruitless as his application to the American Society. A few years afterwards the German philologist, H. C. von der Gabelentz, published a work on the Melanesian languages, in the preface to which he said:

"It cannot be enough lamented that the missionary and Bible societies seek for the most part almost anxiously to render their publications unobtainable for any secular purpose, without considering that they thereby deprive themselves, even for their own purposes, of the assistance which linguistic investigation would afford them."

The learned linguist further felicitates himself on having found two gentlemen—Mr. E. Norris of London, who had formerly been attached to the Melanesian Mission, and Mr. R. Rost of Canterbury, who, with a liberality at that time unusual, had furnished him with books from which he had been able to construct outline grammars of ten Melanesian languages. The world, however, does move, and the noble octavo before us is a proof that this jealousy of scientific investigation is fast dying out, if not already dead. Its author, Dr. Codrington, a man furnished with all that intellectual equipment which is implied in his being a fellow of an Oxford college, was for many years attached to the Melanesian Mission. His book, though the production of a missionary, is not intended exclusively, or even principally, for the use of missionaries. It is a most important contribution to linguistic science, and,

made in the best style of the Clarendon Press, is offered to all who may desire to buy.

Under the general name of "Melanesia" Dr. Codrington includes the following islands and groups of islands: (1) furthest to the north and west, the great island of New Guinea or Papua, about five times the size of the State of New York, its most northern point being about twenty-two miles south of the equator: (2) the two large islands of New Britain and New Ireland, separated by St. George's Channel, in which lies the little island Duke of York, about three miles long by two and a half broad, insignificant in size but important in a linguistic point of view, because the language spoken by its inhabitants is taken as the representative of those spoken on its neighbors, of which little is known; (3) thence, in a generally southeast direction, successively, the Solomon Islands, the Santa Cruz group, the Torres Islands, Banks Islands, the New Hebrides (about which we have heard so much in the last few months), the Loyalty Islands, New Caledonia, and the Fiji Islands. The natives of all these islands are black and have curly hair, but in all other respects they are entirely different from the African negroes in ethnological works they are generally called Papuans.

For many years Dr. Codrington resided on the island of Mota, or, as it is generally called by the English, Sugar-Loaf Island, one of the smallest of the Banks' Islands, and the headquarters of the Melanesian Mission. Much of his time, however, was spent at the Mission School on Norfolk Island, about a thousand miles south of Mota. Boys and young men, natives of different Melanesian islands, attended this school, and from them he gathered the larger part of the materials of his book. All these scholars learned Mota, which Dr. Codrington spoke and wrote with perfect facility, and through the medium of the Mota he acquired most of his information in regard to the other languages. He was also assisted by a native convert named Wogale, a man of great intelligence and a deacon in the church, who spoke several Melanesian languages. Dr. Codrington's book is thus almost entirely the result of original investigations of the different languages as spoken by the natives themselves.

The patience, the care, the acuteness, above all the good sense manifested throughout the work cannot be too highly praised, and the value of the book will increase with time. In a recent review of Judge Fornander's work on the Polynesian languages it was remarked that the natives of the islands of the Pacific were fast becoming extinct. A striking proof of this is found in the fact, mentioned by Dr. Codrington, that Vanua Lava, the largest of the Banks' Islands, has been "depopulated by the labor trade." On that island there were formerly spoken fifteen dialects recognized as distinct by the natives themselves. Dr. Codrington gives us grammars of five of these dialects, and it is very improbable that any further knowledge of them, based upon personal intercourse with the natives, will ever be given to the scientific world. Another influence, equally destructive, and against which the preservation of the race affords no defense, is also at work. Intercourse with Europeans is fast corrupting the native tongues and destroying their characteristic features. This destructive influence does not arise from commercial intercourse only, but from a quarter whence it would be least expected. For our knowledge of barbarous languages we are, and for some time must be, indebted chiefly to the labors of missionaries. Yet Dr. Codrington, himself a missionary, and apparently a very devoted one, does not hesitate to say: "Missionary translations, sermons, and speaking are the ruin of native languages" (p. 100). All this enhances the

value of a work which so evidently strives to present a truthful and accurate account of Melanesian speech.

Dr. Codrington divides his book into six parts: First is a general introduction, in which he endeavors to show not only that the Melanesian languages are "homogeneous" and have a common origin, but that they are a branch of one great family which includes the Malayan and Polynesian languages also. Although the facts and arguments brought forward by Dr. Codrington in support of his theory seem to us altogether insufficient to establish it, yet it is precisely this part of his work, which may perhaps be called the polemical part, that is most calculated to inspire confidence in his subsequent investigations. The tendency to make his facts fit his theory nowhere appears. He does not seek to conceal the differences or exaggerate the similarities of the various languages, and his introduction is full of illustrations, suggestions, and warnings of the highest interest and value to the comparative philologist. (2.) Vocabularies. These contain seventy English words in common use and their equivalents in signification in forty Melanesian languages and in Malay, Malagasy, and Polynesian. They are accompanied by elaborate notes, and it is principally upon their supposed relationship that Dr. Codrington bases his argument for the common origin of all these tongues. We have no space for detailed criticism, but some general objections to his argument will be found below. (3.) Short Comparative Grammar of the Melanesian Languages. (4.) Phonology. (5.) Numeration and Numerals. Parts iv and v are in reality only subdivisions of part iii. (6.) Grammars of the different languages. These special grammars occupy more than one-half the book in bulk and still more in matter, the larger portion of each being printed in a smaller type.

Dr. Codrington gives us grammars of thirty-five Melanesian languages, almost all of them based upon his own personal observation and research. An idea of the zeal and enthusiasm with which he pursued his labors may be formed from the following statement, which he makes (p. 100) for an entirely different purpose:

"After some twelve years' acquaintance with the [Mota] language, talking, teaching, and translating, and after having acquired more or less correctly a considerable vocabulary of Mota words, I began to buy words that I did not know at the rate of a shilling a hundred from the scholars at Norfolk Island. I left off when lists of three thousand words unknown to me had come in."

As this did not, in his opinion, exhaust the stock of his scholars, who had left their native island as boys to attend the school on Norfolk Island, and as they were no doubt ignorant of many words familiar to their elders who had resided continuously on their native island, he estimates that a full vocabulary would contain at least six thousand words; and this "on a small island with less than a thousand inhabitants, and with whom European intercourse began within the memory of living men." We may add that it has been estimated that, excluding scientific and technical terms, an average Englishman of good education does not use over five thousand words; hence it will be seen that the Melanesians do not lack the means of expression. Dr. Codrington gives us no grammars of the languages of New Guinea because hardly anything is known about them. For the same reason he furnishes no grammars of the languages of New Britain and New Ireland, except so far as they may be supposed to be represented by the language of the Duke of York Island, of which he gives a grammar based on materials furnished him by the Rev. George Brown, a Wesleyan missionary stationed there. He also gives no grammar of the language of the Fiji islands, because good

grammars and dictionaries are already obtainable; but the points of agreement and difference between the Fiji and the other Melanesian languages are very fully pointed out.

The language of the island of Mota is very elaborately treated, that island having been Dr. Codrington's place of residence, and its language the one with which he was most familiar. His intercourse with his pupils from other islands was also generally through the medium of the Mota tongue, they being either already acquainted with it or learning it very quickly and easily after coming to the school on Norfolk Island. The Mota tongue thus naturally became a sort of standard of comparison for the other languages, although the author is careful to state that he considers it in no respect entitled to any superiority over the others.

We had marked for notice many curious and interesting peculiarities of the Melanesian languages, but want of space compels us to omit the most of them. Two or three phenomena, however, seem to demand attention. The chain of islands which constitutes Melanesia is about 3,500 miles in length, yet within these limits geographical nearness or remoteness seems to afford no clue whatever to the nearness or remoteness of linguistic relationship. Thus the Fiji Islands are about a thousand miles from Mota, and about six hundred miles from the nearest of the other Melanesian islands; Motlav, a district of Saddle Island, is only seven miles north of Mota, yet "a Mota man finds it easier to learn to speak Fiji than the language of Motlav." Again, the island of Ambrym is nearly in the middle of the New Hebrides. To the north is Arag (Pentecost Island), to the west Malikolo, to the south Api, each within twenty miles of Ambrym. Yet the language of Ambrym is so different from the languages of the other islands that the natives of the latter can only learn it with extreme difficulty. The natives of any one of the smaller islands are generally mutually intelligible, but often speak dialects recognized by themselves as distinct. Thus the little island of Mota, with less than a thousand inhabitants, has two well-marked and distinct dialects, while Vaaua Lava had fifteen, as many as it is miles in length. Another remarkable feature—at least of the Banks' Islands, and probably of the others—is that each dialect or language possesses a poetical language or "song-dialect" differing in many respects from the ordinary spoken tongue. The peculiarities of the song-dialects, as enumerated by Dr. Codrington, are (1) "the casting out of vowels, and consequent contraction of words"; (2) "the occasional addition of a final vowel"; (3) "the use of words that are not used at all or are used differently in ordinary speech"; (4) "the imitation of foreign forms." The song-dialect of Mota resembles that of Motlav on the north and of Gaua on the southwest, but at the same time it is quite different from either the song-dialect or the spoken language of either. "To compose a song is to 'measure' a song." The measure, however, does not depend upon the quantity or number of syllables, but upon their adaptation to a "sort of tune." As to the nature of this "sort of tune" Dr. Codrington gives us no information, except that each song commences with a string of vowels which "sets in some way the tune or the character of it." If, in the course of the song, the character of the tune changes, the change is indicated by the introduction of a new string of vowels.

To establish his theory of the common origin and kinship of the Malayan, Polynesian, and Melanesian languages, Dr. Codrington relies chiefly upon the similarity in form and meaning of a comparatively few words picked up here and there from one and another of these tongues almost infinite in number. Although he is very

circumspect and sober in his treatment of these sporadic resemblances, he yet thinks their cumulative force sufficient to justify the inference that they belong to a common stock. But even if we make no allowance for chance coincidences, there are so many possible and even probable ways of accounting for these resemblances, that they seem to us to go but a little way towards establishing his theory. Neither is the existence of similar grammatical forms and identical psychological processes in two languages very strong evidence of kinship. In Nengone (formerly called Britannia Island, now usually Mare), the most southern of the Melanesian islands, the system of numeration, not only in its general structure, but in many of its details, is identical with that of the Greenlanders who dwell far to the northeast, amid the snow and ice of the frigid zone, separated from Melanesia by an ocean and a continent. This is undoubtedly due to the fact that the natives of Nengone and Greenland alike use both fingers and toes in counting.

But we will give another example, far more striking, of a purely intellectual character, not connected with any physical process. All the Melanesian languages agree in having two forms of first person plural of the personal pronoun, the one exclusive, the other inclusive. The exclusive form is used when the speaker includes himself and those he speaks for, but excludes those whom he addresses; the inclusive form is used when the speaker includes in his proposition not only those for whom but those to whom he speaks. Thus, supposing a canoe containing a party of men from the east of Mota meets another from the west containing another party. The leader of the party from the east might address the other party: "We are from the east of Mota, where are you from?" He would employ the exclusive form of the *we*. The leader of the other party might answer: "We are from the west of Mota," also using the exclusive form. The first one might then say: "Then we are friends," and he would now employ the inclusive form. So far as we know, no grammatical form of this sort exists in any language of Europe, Asia, or Africa. Now, taking our stand on the island of Mota, let us make a long leap a little to the north of east over the broad Pacific, the Polynesian islands, the peaks of the Andes, and drop down in Cuzco, the ancient capital of the Incas. We are now thousands of miles from Mota, 11,000 feet above it, and on a continent instead of a mere dot on the surface, just above the level of the sea. Climate, race, laws, customs, everything is different. The ancient language, the Kechua, like the ancient people, is not yet wholly extinct. It is as unlike any one of the Melanesian tongues as the people are unlike the black, curly-haired cannibals of Melanesia. But the Kechua has two forms of the first person plural of the personal pronoun, an exclusive and an inclusive, identical in meaning and use with the Melanesian forms, though phonetically there is no similarity. From Cuzco let us now make another leap a little to the west of north, not quite so long as but perhaps more difficult than the first, over a third in length of the South American continent, with its mountains and valleys and mighty rivers, over the Caribbean Sea and the Gulf of Mexico, over the United States and the broad expanse of Lake Superior, upon whose northern shore we drop among the Chippewa Indians. Again everything is different—climate, race, language; but here, too, we find the same two forms, exclusive and inclusive, of the first person plural of the personal pronoun. Neither is the phonetic form so radically different from Mota as in the case of the Kechua; but any similarity that may be traced is evidently a mere matter of chance.

The want of an index is the most serious defect of the book before us, and greatly impairs its

usefulness as a work of reference, though in part remedied by a very good table of contents and an extremely systematic arrangement.

An Investor's Notes on American Railroads. By John Swann. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1886.

MR. SWANN is an English lawyer who has had practical experience in American railroad management. He has embodied the results of this experience in a little book of less than two hundred pages, dealing with railroads and railroad legislation from the standpoint of the investor. This is not the first time that the subject has been so treated. W. M. Grosvenor's recent work on 'American Securities'—of whose existence our author is apparently unaware—deals with some of these matters with great ability. But the two books, though looking at the subject from the same side, are altogether unlike in their character. Grosvenor's work is chiefly historical, presenting and explaining the facts as they occurred. Swann gives the explanations without the history—describing methods and principles, rather than specific facts. The two supplement one another extremely well.

The substance of Mr. Swann's book is almost all good. Not so much can be said for the arrangement, which is often very confused. A little more care in this respect would have greatly increased the effectiveness of the book. Three distinct topics are treated: first, the social conditions which affect American investments; second, the financial methods employed in controlling or manipulating them; third, the legal disabilities to which they are (or may be) subjected. The first of these points is treated in such a manner as to be of more interest to foreigners than to Americans. What Mr. Swann says with regard to the feeling in favor of protection, or the geographical direction of railroads, is all true enough, but not particularly new to readers on this side of the Atlantic. Of much greater interest is the part which describes the financial methods of railroad rings. These ought to be well known to the public, but unfortunately they are not. Mr. Swann gives clear illustrations of the means used to affect the prices of stock; of special contracts with inside rings; of the ways of issuing fictitious capital, or "reorganizing" real capital out of existence. We have but two criticisms to make on this part of the work. In the first place, it would have been more forcible if the author had used real cases for illustration instead of hypothetical ones. He doubtless shrank from mentioning names; but it would have added greatly to the usefulness and force of the book if he had dared to do so. In the second place, he does not always realize the extent to which the traffic department of a railroad is and must be independent of the financial department. Railroad managers do not base their rates upon capital: they base them upon operating expenses and volume of traffic to be secured. But our author, in his speculations as to the probable policy of a trunk line with no water in its stock (p. 133), falls into the fallacy of thinking that rates are naturally based upon capital. If his experience as a railroad manager did not show him his error, he might at least have noticed the fact that the Baltimore and Ohio, capitalized at less than \$100,000 per mile, charges higher average rates than the Erie, capitalized at over \$300,000 per mile.

That part of the book which relates to the legal position of railroad property is of great value. Nowhere else have we seen so good a summary of the lines on which the rights of railroad owners are limited, or at least threatened:

"(1.) The institution of boards of railroad commissioners with unprecedentedly large powers, involving the assumption of important directorial functions. The cost of their maintenance to be

paid by the railroads subject to their jurisdiction. (2.) The formal incorporation into the statute-book of the several States of the proposition that 'a railroad is a public highway, the property of the people.' As incidents thereof: (3) The right of the people by their commissioners to fix rates, settle tariffs, and revise special contracts. (4) The right to limit dividends in advance. (5.) The right to direct from time to time additional expenditures by corporations, in order to furnish such improved accommodations as may be deemed suitable for the public convenience outside the requirements of public safety."

Each of these points is discussed with vigor; and whether we agree with Mr. Swann or not, what he says has an interest as representing the views of a well-informed Englishman on subjects about which he is perhaps more impartial than an American is likely to be. One of his arguments under the third head is characteristic and worth quoting:

"The Supreme Court of the State of New York has recently decided that corporations can be compelled by mandamus to handle promptly all freight offered for transportation in the face of a strike of the freight-handlers. . . . Now, where a corporation can control its own tariff, the obligation to handle promptly all freight offered by the public is a measurable commercial risk. But if a State which does not actively discourage labor combinations neither permits corporations to protect themselves by raising rates to meet the fluctuations of the labor market, nor itself bears any portion of the loss arising from its official adjustment of the tariff during the existence of the strike, it creates a divorce between management and responsibility. It disarms corporations by legal intervention, and then leaves them solely liable for the losses incident to their disarmed condition."

This is a hypothetical case; but it shows how several principles which have been applied separately could not with any fairness be applied all together.

Mr. Swann is, as a rule, remarkably correct in his facts and figures. His estimate of thirteen hundred millions sterling (about \$50,000 per mile) as the *actual* capital invested in American railroads will strike most well-informed readers as rather high; but since he makes it with many reservations, it would be unfair to hold him too closely responsible. There is a curiously misleading statement that, "with one or two exceptions, railroad commissions in the South have, on the whole, exercised their powers with greater judgment and moderation than elsewhere." This is perhaps verbally correct, if we consider only those States whose commissions have been allowed by the courts to exercise their powers. But since there are only four such States in the South, the "one or two exceptions" rather detracts from the force of the remark. As a matter of fact, railroad commissions in the South probably average neither better nor worse than in the Northwest.

The Life of Charles I. (1600-1625). By E. Beresford Chancellor. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Scribner & Welford. 8vo, pp. 180.

MR. CHANCELLOR has industriously collected all that could be learned of the personal history of Charles I. up to his accession to the throne, and has narrated his life in a clear and appropriate style, with abundant references to authorities. There are few sovereigns of modern times whose personality has so much historical importance as that of Charles I., considering how largely his contest with the Parliament was affected by his character and habits of thought. But it is a good illustration how little the historians have dealt with the most fundamental points, that we learn here almost nothing as to the formation of his character. It would be worth a good deal, as a study in psychology, to know exactly how his inherent want of good faith, joined to a general

uprightness of disposition, was created. There are a number of excellent portraits, and we suppose that it was in order to make suitable accommodation for them that the rather awkward shape and size of the book were selected.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- Balou, M. M. *Genius in Sunshine and Shadow.* Boston: Ticknor & Co. \$1.
Bates, Ario. *Berries of the Brier.* Boston: Roberts Bros. \$1.
Beale, Anne. *Simplicity and Fascination: A Novel.* Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Benjamin, Park. *The Age of Electricity, from Amber-Soul to Telephone.* Charles Scribner's Sons. \$2.
Blatsdell, A. F. *Study of the English Classics.* Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Clarke, C. B. *Speculations from Political Economy.* Macmillan & Co. \$1.
Deming, P. *Adirondack Stories.* [Piverside Pocket Series.] Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 50 cents.
Dostoevsky, Th. *Krotkai.* New York: Christern.
Drake, S. A. *The Making of New England, 1589-1643.* Charles Scribner's Sons. \$1.50.
Drewry, Edith B. *Baptized with a Curse.* Harper & Bros. 25 cents.
Dunning Chariotte. *A Step Aside.* Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.25.
Ebbutt, P. G. *Emigrant Life in Kansas.* Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. \$2.25.
Ely, R. T. *The Labor Movement in America.* T. Y. Crowell & Co. \$1.50.
Everett, W. *Address on the Services of Washington before the School Children of Boston.* Boston: Roberts Bros. 15 cents.
Ewing, Julian H. *A Flat Iron for a Farthing.* Boston: Roberts Bros. \$1.
Fischer, Prof. T. *Sammlung mittelalterlicher Welt- und Seekarten italienischen Ursprungs und aus italienischen Bibliotheken und Archiven.* Venice: F. Onganria; New York: Christern.
Franke, F. *Phrases de tous les jours.* Heilbronn: Gebr. Henninger.
Frémont, J. C. *Memoirs of My Life.* With a Sketch of the Life of Senator Benton, by Jessie Benton Frémont. Part I. Berlin, Clarke & Co. 50 cents.
Gomme, G. L. *Archaeology.* Part 2. [The Gentleman's Magazine Library.] Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$2.50.
Halleck, C. *Our New Alaska; or, The Seward Purchase Vindicated.* Forest and Stream Publishing Company. \$1.50.
Harcourt, Helen. *Florida Fruits and How to Raise Them.* Louisville: John P. Morton & Co. \$1.25.
Harris, Prof. J. R. *Fragments of Philo Judaeus.* Cambridge, Eng.: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Hastings, Hugh J. *Ancient American Politics.* Edited and revised by his nephew, Hugh Hastings. Harper & Bros. 30 cents.
Hopkins, Louisa Parsons. *Educational Psychology: A Treatise on Parents and Educators.* Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Index-Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, U. S. A. Vol. viii. *Insignares—Leghorn.* Washington.
Jevons, F. B. *A History of Greek Literature.* Charles Scribner's Sons. \$2.50.
Johnson, R. *Exile: A Volume of Little Classics.* Riverside Pocket Series. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 50 cents.
Kinney, J. K. *A Digest of the Decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States, From the Organization of the Court to the close of the October Term, 1884.* 2 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Lefebvre, I. *La Renaissance religieuse en France.* Boston: Schoenhof.
Longfellow, H. W. *Outre-Mer and Driftwood.* Hyperion and Kavanagh. 2 vols. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.50.
Matthews, B., and Hutton, L. *Actors and Actresses of Great Britain and the United States.* Vol. 3. Kean and Booth and their Contemporaries. Cassell & Co. \$1.50.
Meredith, G. Sandra Belloni. Boston: Roberts Bros. \$2.
Morris, M. *The Management of the Skin and Hair.* Cassell & Co. 75 cents.
Neill, E. D. *Virginia Carolorum: The Colony under the Rule of Charles the First and Second, 1625-1685.* Based upon Manuscripts and Documents of the Period. Albany: Joel Munsell's Sons.
Owen, Catharine. *Perfect Bread: Its Preparation and Use.* C. W. Bryan. 25 cents.
Passy, P. *Le Français parlé.* Heilbronn: Gebr. Henning.
Pocket Atlas of the World. Rand, McNally & Co. 25 cents.
Pomeroy, J. N. *Lectures on International Law in Time of Peace.* Edited by Theodore S. Woolsey. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$5.
Pourret, L. *Dictionnaire étymologique de la langue française.* New York: Christern.
Power, H., Field G. P., and Bristowe, J. S. *The Management of the Eye, Ear, and Throat.* Cassell & Co. \$1.25.
Raju, P. V. R. *The Tales of the Sixty Mandarins.* Introduction by Prof. H. Morley. Cassell & Co.
Schneider, W. *Die Naturvölker: Missverständnisse, Missdeutungen, und Misshandlungen.* 2 vols. Faderborn: F. Schöningh; New York: Westermann.
Schuchardt, H. *Romanisches und Keltisches.* Berlin: Robert Oppenheim.
Some Views on the Tariff Question. Boston: E. L. Odgood.
Stailey, C., and Pierson, G. S. *The Separate System of Sewerage.* D. Van Nostrand.
Thackeray, W. M. *The History of Pendennis.* In 2 vols. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 50 cents per vol.
Thompson, M. *The Boys' Book of Sports and Outdoor Life.* The Century Company.
Timayens, T. T. *Contes Tirés de Shakespeare, d'après l'Anglais de Charles et Mary Lamb.* Charles Scribner's Sons. \$1.
Tolstoi, L. *À la recherche du bonheur.* New York: Christern.
Trautmann, Prof. M. *Die Sprachleute im allgemeinen, und die Laute des Englischen, Französischen und Deutschen im besondern.* Leipzig: G. Fock.
Treves, F. *The Influence of Clothing on Health.* Cassell & Co. 75 cents.
Trowbridge, J. T. *The Little Master.* Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Tweed, F. *Grammar for Common Schools.* Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Tyler, W. S. *The Iliad of Homer.* Books xvi-xxiv. With explanatory notes. Harper & Bros.

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